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MAJOR A. C. BALLANTINE, Editor
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Fourteenth Year

December, 1933

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Empire Defence

*By Major-General the Honourable W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.,
V.D.*

THE object of defence is security. Security in this sense may be defined as a continuing assurance that the national life be not interfered with by internal or external forces; that the lives of our people, and their property, wherever situate, is safe from molestation or destruction. There should be contained in the idea of security the further assurance that should there be a temporary dislocation of the national life by force, the means by which security is assured are such as to redress the situation in the end.

In times of peace, which is the normal condition, security and the means by which it is attained, and the vital importance of it, does not greatly interest Canadian people. Foreign politics, international relationships and the like, interest only a small minority of our people. We have, up to the present time, led a sheltered existence and as a result we are nationally immature. Our politicians and press have found it not only convenient, but profitable, to avoid or soft pedal the question of national defence. The fundamental principle of security as a national policy has not even been heard of by the great majority of our people.

During the past three years it has been amply demonstrated that prosperity must be based upon confidence and surely it is now apparent that confidence must be based upon national security. Economic security and military security are one and the same thing. It has probably always been so; it certainly is so now.

Security, then, should be the major preoccupation of the national government. John Stuart Mill said that "defence is greater than opulence", meaning thereby that defence should be striven for first even at the expense of opulence and by "defence" he no doubt meant security.

In the past, security was secured by a variety of means, if not actually secured, at least contributed to by different factors such as geographical location, insignificance, alliances, potential as distinct from exploited military strength, balance of power, national jealousies, treaties and the like. In the past thirty years a great change has taken place which profoundly affects national security achieved by any method. Time and space have been contracted by invention so that all the world is one community. National resources have been depleted. You have overcrowded countries on the one hand and empty countries on the other. Economic necessity drives men today

as never before. Necessity knows no law! In the struggle for survival, manners, morals and religion, the sanctity of treaties, international law and humane conventions, are swept aside.

Of especial significance to us is this condition of affairs for within the British Empire today lie the only empty spaces, and within the Empire lie the only great mass of unexploited natural resources, both so essential to the survival of numerous and martial people.

We view all this with smug complacency. With tolerant amusement we note the antics of "lesser breeds without the law". The Japanese armed to the teeth wrest a great domain from a helpless neighbour and defy the world. Great European nations destroy democracy and establish dictatorships and over-ride the public law with force and violence. For lack of room and raw materials multitudes of men face starvation and demand that their governments do something about it; and what is our reaction to all this? We wag our heads and wonder why these fellows can't be satisfied with their lot. Why they can't be wise and kind and gentle and law-abiding as we are. Indeed we get a distinct kick out of contrasting their silliness with our behaviour in the premises.

Dr. Inazo Nitobe, Japanese publicist, had something to say about this just before his death: "Nothing is easier for a man or a nation possessed of large fortunes to agree to than maintenance of the status quo a few nations grabbing a large part of the globe while others are pinched for elbow room."

We possess a great and rich estate capable of supporting ten times our present population. We are surrounded by hungry nations fully armed who need what we have. Necessity drives them forward and necessity knows no law. This situation constitutes a threat to our national security. This threat may not be direct. It may be indirect. It is distinctly perceivable.

* * * * *

THE security of Canada has been, still is, and is likely to be for some time, guaranteed by the armed strength and prestige of the British Empire. From the point of view of armed strength, and the wealth, population and prestige which supports armed strength, Great Britain herself (the British Isles) is the core and the preponderating element in the armed strength of the British Empire. I would not minimize the value of the armed strength of the rest of the Empire when it can be improvised, organized, equipped (with material brought from the British Isles) trained and brought to the decisive point by the military exertions of Great Britain herself. The Mother Country is a great state even without any of the Dominions. Upon her will fall the first shock of war. As she stands up to that shock or fails to do so, the war is won or lost for the whole empire. Assume that Great Britain is beaten to her knees in the first three months of a great war and compelled to surrender, the rest of the

Empire is at the disposal of the conquerors. If there is any other reasonable assumption I would like to know what it is.

It follows that any threat to the power and prestige of Great Britain is a threat to the security of Canada, indeed to every part of the British Empire. This I think has always been so. It may not always have been so apparent. Today with the contraction of time and space it is undoubtedly so. Today we can apply the strategic doctrine to so vast a theatre of war as the whole world: "Victory at the decisive point is victory everywhere". Wherever Great Britain exerts her greatest effort that is the decisive point; the issue for the whole Empire is determined there.

Succeeding Empire Conferences have dealt with the question of Empire defence. There has been a frank acknowledgment of the predominating part to be played by Great Britain as though it were the operation of some natural force brought into play without expense or trouble to any one in particular. This has been followed by an agreement that each part of the Empire would be responsible for its own local defence. I am told that distinguished soldiers and sailors concurred in this agreement and for that reason it ought not to be criticized. I have lived long enough to know that distinguished soldiers and sailors, and some not so distinguished, in such circumstances are confronted by politicians who blandly inform them that certain political understandings have been arrived at and that their plans and proposals must fall within the four corners of these understandings. In short, the politician is supreme and soldiers and sailors are servants.

With respect to these agreements for local defence two things may be said: First, the principle is not sound in these latter days, and second, the agreements have not been lived up to. Australia has done much better than any other dominion especially in naval defence but still does not provide for her local defence, if indeed she can. Canada, in my opinion, is the worst defaulter.

In defence of Canada's action, or the lack of it, in the matter of local defence this ingenious and ingenuous argument is put forward. Canada found herself at the beginning of things with a small population set in a narrow ribband on the south frontier of half a continent. Her natural and economic avenues of trade and expansion were North and South. This meant absorption by the United States. She chose to defy natural law and economics by an East and West expansion and spent vast sums on canals and transcontinental railways. This expenditure was a contribution to Empire defence since it saved Canada to the Empire. Nothing is said about the enormous sums spent by Great Britain on fortifications in Canada, upon the Rideau Canal, extinguishing the claims of the Hudson's Bay Company in the North West Territories and the like. Let that pass. Let us look at the argument. We spent the money. We have the property. It is sound business now to say that because we spent a great sum on the creation of the property we are now well advised to refuse

to pay the cost of police, fire and various other forms of insurance. No business man would take that view.

* * * * *

LOCAL defence is a fairly vague term at best. In Canada we know how it is interpreted. It means the smallest land force we have had for many years. It means that having regard for modern armament and equipment our troops are less well armed and equipped relatively than they were in 1913. Our idea of naval defence is two modern destroyers and three or four trawlers. Esquimalt, our fortified naval base is mainly armed with two old-fashioned 9.2 guns in well-known, well marked, visible emplacements. Halifax is probably much the same. In both cases the armament is just sufficient to justify a potential enemy in pounding the stuffing out of both these innocent and easy-going communities. The scheme of Canadian naval defence is that only the focus of sea-borne trade can be defended. The focus of sea-borne trade is the point to which ships must come to enter the port. On each coast we can supply for the protection of one port one modern destroyer, one obsolete destroyer and one or two trawlers. One enemy light cruiser could sink this flotilla or chase it into port in an hour and thereafter wait at the focus for our home-coming ships in comparative peace and quietness. After that our sea-borne trade would stop dead. I shall discuss that later.

A certain small boy long ago discovered that when you step on a dog's tail the resulting howl of anguish comes from the point most remote from the tail. Some strategists tell us that the Singapore base constitutes the best possible defence for our British Columbian coast, small raids excepted of course. Even costly local defence belongs to the days of sailing ships. In these days one steps on the tail, one seeks the nerve centre and hits that. Of course there must be local defence but local defence cannot win a world war. Something much more than that is necessary to win a war and gain security.

I suggest to you now that the basic fact, the fundamental factor which provides for the security of Canada, is the existence of Great Britain as a great power with, if not a supreme navy, at least a navy sufficient, efficient, and effective in the highest degree. Sea power is the condition precedent to the existence of the British Empire. It must be so. Unless we can use the seas freely we are done. Without the free use of the seas we cannot trade; we cannot receive assistance from overseas; we cannot go to the assistance of any other part of the Empire. Let us examine Canadian sea-borne trade. I exclude land-borne trade with the United States.

Years	Imports	Exports	Total
1928	\$ 390,060,000	\$ 753,812,000	\$1,143,872,000
1929	397,667,000	867,629,000	1,265,296,000
1930	400,832,000	608,250,000	1,009,082,000
1931	322,206,000	453,105,000	775,421,000
1932	226,817,000	343,215,000	570,032,000
	\$1,737,582,000	\$3,026,011,000	\$4,763,703,000

Leaving out of the picture our imports of \$1,737,582,000 in the last five years, consider our exports of \$3,026,011,000. Assume the destruction of this export trade by the loss of the free use of the sea to get it to the world markets. Practically every industry in Canada would be ruined in the first year of a blockade. Of these exports by sea I find the following to be the value of agricultural, vegetable and animal products:—

1928	-----	\$ 573,180,000
1929	-----	662,710,000
1930	-----	402,934,000
1931	-----	314,779,000
1932	-----	240,223,000
		\$2,193,826,000

And where were the bulk of these products produced? Right here on these Western plains. We have experienced a period of nearly three years of low prices for these products. You all know what these low prices have brought us to. What would be our condition if there was no price at all due to our inability to use the seas for export to the world market?

In 1929 our total trade rose to: imports \$1,265,679,000; exports \$1,388,896,000—a total of \$2,654,575,000. Of these items we imported from the United States \$868,012,000 and exported to the United States \$521,267,000. All these items are lower in 1932 due to the depression but we are the fifth trading nation in the world today. If due to a situation which might arise we were not able to export to the United States in any year or series of years, such exports as we now send them must go out by sea or remain in Canada unsold or unproduced.

To protect the sea-borne trade above described what part does local defence play? None at all; not even a much more effective and costly local defence than we now have. How do we propose to protect this trade in time of war which must be carried on somehow, otherwise this Western country will be beggared? To the extent that it has received any thought at all it is assumed that the British Navy will protect it. First, because we are a member of the British Empire and have some sort of a right to the protection of the British Navy, and second, because our sea-borne exports are so urgently required by the mother country that she must ensure the safe delivery of these products.

With respect to these assumptions three things may be said. First, we have no legal right to the protection of the British Navy and only a moral right to the extent to which we contribute something of value to Empire defence as a whole. Second, it is by no means certain that our exports are so essential to the mother country as we suppose. It would depend largely upon the precise nature of the war for one thing, and the priority which might have been given to other overseas products; say oil, the movement of troops and the

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like. Finally we must face the possibility that the British Navy might fail by reason of lack of strength to carry out the task of commerce protection particularly with respect to our export trade to Europe.

I contend that we are so vitally interested in the maintenance of sea communications; that sea communications are so vital to our security that local defence no longer answers, if it ever did; that something much more is required, and that something is a substantial augmentation of naval protection applied on an Empire wide basis in a theatre of war which might embrace the seven seas.

* * *

THERE are some, a very few I think, who suggest that if we became a completely independent country we would be so gentle, so kind and good that we could escape from all this wretched business of defence and armaments and so forth and particularly we would escape becoming entangled in a purely European war. In short that our membership in the Empire is more likely to get us into trouble than if we were independent and further, that a scheme of Empire defence would be more costly to us than the cost of defence would be if we were independent. I assume that if we were independent we would behave much as other nations do who are in our class. To begin with we would have to establish a diplomatic and consular service throughout the world. As the fifth trading nation we could scarcely escape that. I have no estimate of the cost of such a service. At the moment we have three ministers at Washington, Paris and Tokio and no consuls. The whole of the British service is at our disposal.

I append (Schedule A) a statement prepared for me by the Bureau of Statistics at Ottawa showing the area, population, annual expenditure (Budget), trade, merchant shipping, and expenditure for national defence for certain countries who in these respects are comparable with us:

Schedule A.
Area, Population, Annual Expenditure, Trade, Merchant Shipping and Expenditure for National Defence of
Certain Countries in the Most Recent Year for which Figures are Available.

	Area	Population	Annual Expenditure	Grand Total Trade	Merchant Shipping Tonnage	Year	Army	Navy	Air
	000—sq. mi.	000	\$000	\$000	000—1931		\$000	\$000	\$000
Norway	125	'30 2,810	'32 100,175	'32 233,838	4,066	1931	6,110	5,413	1,206
Sweden	173	'30 6,142	'32 234,304	'32 439,670	1,705	1930	21,225	13,078	2,600
Denmark	16	'30 3,550	'32 102,453	'32 465,408	1,145	1931	7,557	3,832	750
Holland	13	'30 7,921	'31 353,725	'32 982,042	3,118	1929	48,999	17,847	5,105
Finland	150	'20 3,105	'32 69,681	'31 188,000	312	1930	Total Nat'l Defence		16,109
Spain †	194	'30 23,581	'31 712,159	'32 156,578	1,227	1930	109,904	34,982	1*
Portugal	35	'30 6,191	'32 86,091	'31 104,000	276	1931	14,077	7,145*	478*
Belgium	12	'30 8,092	'31 343,362	'32 982,094	547	1930	33,762	—	4*
Argentina	1,078	'14 7,885	'30 679,288	'32 620,743	328	1930	74,576	46,212*	1*
Brazil	3,292	'20 30,636	'31 260,243	'32 331,736	499	1930	34,812	20,122*	1*
Chile	286	'30 4,288	'31 153,803	'31 201,000	184	1930	14,745	14,574*	4*
Peru	532	1876 2,699	'30 3,948	'31 76,000	65	1930	4,480*		
Australia	2,975	'21 5,436	'32 459,403	'32 504,809		1931	Total Nat'd Defence	2,240*	1*
New Zealand	103	'31 1,511	'32 120,691	'32 211,348	681		1,285	2,190	18,420
South Africa	472	'21 6,929	'32 143,077	'32 548,136	44	1931	Total Nat'l Defence		4*
Canada	3,690	'32 10,506	'32 448,528	'32 938,393	1,437	1931	12,100	3,800	4,907
									3,400*

† With Canaries.
1* Divided between Army and Navy.
2* Military Aviation only.
3* Included Naval Air Service.
4* Included in Army Vote
5* Included Lighthouse and Harbour Administration.
6* Includes Pensions.
7* Includes expenditure on purchase and upkeep of aircraft and equipment for Civil Government air operations and Controller of Civil Aviation branches.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

A rough analysis of this statement shows that:

Sweden, with six million people, half our trade, slightly more tonnage, spends almost double what we spend on defence;

Portugal, with six million people, about one-ninth our trade, about one-seventh our tonnage, spends three million dollars more than we spend on defence;

Argentina, with eight million people, about two-thirds our trade, less than a quarter of our tonnage, spends more than six times what we spend on defence;

Chile, with less than half our population, less than a quarter of our trade, about one-eighth of our tonnage, spends ten million dollars a year more than we do on defence.

From the foregoing I argue that if we were independent we would be obliged to spend on defence possibly more than four times the amount we now spend.

I give now a rough statement with relative figures for the dominions and Great Britain:

Country	Population	Trade	Tonnage	Defence Expenditure
Australia	6,000,000	504,809,000		\$ 18,420,000
			681,000	
New Zealand ..	1,500,000	211,348,000		3,475,000
South Africa ..	7,500,000	548,136,000	44,000	\$ 4,907,000
Canada	10,500,000	938,393,000	1,437,000	\$ 19,300,000
	25,500,000	2,202,686,000	2,162,000	\$ 46,102,000
Gt. Britain	44,000,000	6,500,000,000	19,562,000	\$536,400,000

The dominions with five-ninths the population, one-third the trade, one-ninth the tonnage, pay about one-eleventh for national defence as compared with Great Britain.

Looking at it another way: Cost of naval defence relative to total trade:—

Great Britain pays	3.04%
Australia pays	1.06%
New Zealand pays	0.77%
South Africa pays	0.043%
Canada pays	0.15%

Or another way: Cost of naval defence per head of population:—

Great Britain	\$5.48
Australia	1.32
New Zealand	2.18
South Africa	.21
Canada	.36

* * * *

I HAVE shown that we do not pay as much for defence as we would have to pay if we were a completely independent country. I have shown that with the exception of South Africa we are at the foot of the list of British countries in the matter of defence expenditure, particularly naval defence. I have shown that however you look at it the people of Great Britain carry a load of expenditure for defence out of all proportion to the rest of us. When we come to discuss taxation we find that the people of Great Britain are more heavily taxed than any other part of the empire. In private life a decent man would squirm a bit when he realized that someone else, a relative perhaps, was paying his way for him. Some of our people comfort themselves with the contention that Great Britain has to maintain her present defence forces anyway for the protection of her own territory and trade and would continue to do so even if we left the empire. A distinguished writer uses an illustration which I think that I can improve upon. A man named Jones has a house in the suburbs and a business in town. He has to keep a motor car to get from his house to his business. His wife's brother, a man named Smith, lives a few doors down the street. Every morning when Jones drives out of his garage Smith is there waiting. He gets into Jones' car and drives into the city with Jones. Jones gets a bit tired of it but doesn't like to say anything about it on account of the relationship and the possibility of a family row. Smith's conscience bothers him at times but he consoles himself with the reflection that Jones has to keep a car anyway and Jones shouldn't really mind on account of the relationship. Now what do we really think of Smith?

This story brings out another point, a very important point I think. Jones didn't like to complain about Smith's conduct because of the danger of a family row so he kept his mouth shut. There is probably scarcely a public man or a senior soldier or sailor in Great Britain who does not know that in the matter of Empire defence we are not doing our bit and that Great Britain, heavily taxed as she is, is doing much more than her share, but they are keeping very quiet about it. They do not want a family row. You are familiar with the American hotelman's creed, "The guest is always right". Similarly in the British fighting services and in public life the "Dominions are always right". But some day there will be a family row unless the right people initiate the discussion and put the matter on a firm basis of mutual co-operation and self-respect, and we are the proper people to begin the discussion; we and no others. How are we to go about it?

I suggest that the component parts of the Empire should join in a declaration broadcast to all the world that every part of the Empire will come to the assistance of every other part if attacked by a foreign power. This is the test of Empire. Unless this obligation exists and is a living thing there is no Empire. On the day that a part of the Empire is attacked and other parts stand by and do nothing, that day marks the end of the British Empire.

There are two possible objections to such a declaration: First

that it might seem provocative and bellicose. As to that I suggest that history proves otherwise. What world statesmen want in international relationships is finality, definiteness, certainty. Here you have it. In the first volume of Lloyd George's memoirs referring to Sir Edward Grey he complains that Grey was not definite and firm with the Germans; "Had he warned Germany in time of the point at which Britain would declare war—and wage it with her whole strength—the issue would have been different", and so on. The Germans now complain that we deceived them. They never thought that we would fight them. Had they known it there might have been no war. This is the view of Professor Gilbert Murray: "In 1914 if Germany had known for certain that by making war she would bring Great Britain in against her, it is quite likely that there would have been no war". When some of our public men talk about our right to remain neutral in a war involving some part of the Empire they encourage foreign powers in courses from which such a declaration as I suggest would dissuade them.

Second, it is urged that such a declaration as I suggest is not consistent with our status as a sovereign state. It would or might take us automatically into a war in which we had no direct concern, as though the defeat of Great Britain or the disruption of the Empire was a matter in which we had no concern. Many politicians fancy themselves in such an emergency debating in Parliament the morality or the propriety of our taking part in a war involving the solidarity of the Empire. There is a distinct relationship between the making up of the political mind and the solidification of public opinion and it may be asserted that the politicians' minds would be made up for them in jig time by the man on the street. The British Empire must win every war in which it takes part. This I think is axiomatic. A solid land mass like Russia, France or Germany can lose a war and survive, but in these latter days we, a world-wide and scattered family of nations, must win. If we lose we are through. The man on the street knows this. He knows it by instinct. He may not know that he knows it but let the situation arise and he will get right to the point while much more learned men are floundering through the mazes of white, green, yellow and pink books issued by the various governments involved.

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HERE you have the basis of an Empire defence policy. It is extremely simple. Every one within and without the Empire can understand it. Within the British Empire lies Canada's greatest security. The solidarity and permanence of the Empire rests upon the might of Britain. The Empire must always win. When in a given situation we cannot agree that the Empire must win the day of final separation has arrived. To ensure that the Empire always must win we must make a contribution of men and money commensurate with our population, trade, tonnage, area and such other factors as determine the stature of a nation. This we are not doing. There is no doubt upon this point. Few will argue that it is otherwise and those who do take their stand upon the grounds of sovereignty, au-

tonomy, status, pacificism, hostility to British connection and the like, considerations which will disappear in the first blast of war. One would wish that they would think more of our security and national self respect which are a much more satisfying and lasting possession.

I advocate the augmentation of the armed strength of the Empire. I do not advocate the contribution of a single dollar, man, or ship to Great Britain. I suggest only that we do our share as determined by an Imperial conference at which all the cards are laid upon the table. I suggest the reversal of the present policy (determined by past Imperial conferences) that Britain bear the major part in Empire defence and that the dominions be responsible only for local defence. We must have local defence but local defence cannot win a war. It is clear that the military land strength of the Empire cannot be exerted, cannot even come into existence unless the seas are made accessible to us and to this end the Empire sea forces must be made adequate to the task, and this is the first requirement. At the moment the best naval opinion holds that the British navy is short twenty light cruisers. If this should found to be so let us build and man our share in a homogeneous fleet. Let us have a real navy. In land forces we have arranged for standardization in establishments, equipment and training throughout the Empire. Let us build up a navy standardized throughout the Empire in the same way so that the combined naval forces of the Empire are equal to the task of standing the first shock of war and fulfilling the duty which we have given them, namely to keep the seas for our use. When we have done this we need fear no invasion from over seas. No other part of the Empire need fear invasion from overseas, and local defence is largely, if not wholly, provided for. The heart of the Empire will be safe, a matter of profound strategic importance.

Against this it is argued that the three power treaty (Great Britain, United States and Japan) would prevent such an augmentation of an Empire fleet. With respect to that several things may be said. First the restrictions imposed by the treaty placed the Empire at a distinct disadvantage and ought not to have been agreed to. Second, since the Statute of Westminster the Dominions have become sovereign states and are entitled to their own naval protection based upon the factors of national stature to which I have referred. All these in combination materially alter the considerations upon which the British fleet was reduced to its present proportions. Third, the treaty will expire in 1936, and unless the international situation changes for the better before that date there will be no renewal of the treaty.

As well provision should be made for an expeditionary force. If we expect to go speedily to the assistance of another part of the Empire, or if we expect assistance from other parts of the Empire, there must be provision for an expeditionary force; its size and composition are matters for discussion.

Lastly, there should be local defence. You will notice that I put it third in importance. Adequate Empire naval forces will guarantee as far as is humanly possible all parts of the Empire against invasion—tip and run raids and bombardments only excepted. No amount of local defence within our power to provide will insure us against these latter. While unpleasant they cannot seriously influence the outcome of a war. The nature and extent of this local defence is a matter for consideration and depends upon changing conditions. It would be largely unembodied but provision made for organization. It would be draft finding for the expeditionary force and should have a large proportion of trained officers for staff duties and duty with the units.

As to cost we must be prepared for a substantial increase in defence estimates particularly on the naval side. To support this increase in cost I assert that our defence estimates should be based upon the precise requirements for Empire defence divided pro rata amongst the component parts of the Empire on the basis of population, trade, tonnage and the like. There may be other considerations. What I am arguing for is a greater participation in Empire defence on the part of the dominions. That is the general rule. The exceptions and qualifications can be dealt with as they arise.

I have shown that were we independent completely our defence costs would be very much larger than they are now. That conclusion, it seems to me, is inescapable. I now assert that in a scheme of Empire defence such as I have outlined, while the costs would be increased over what we now spend they would be much less than we would have to spend if we were on our own and the degree of security gained infinitely greater than we now have or could have by any other means.

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I HAVE not told you anything that is new or original. I venture to think that you agree with me in all my main contentions. You will, for instance, agree that Great Britain is the core, the great rock of our defence. There the common sovereign of the Empire lives; there the heart of the Empire beats. There are signs that the mother country is beginning to stagger a bit under the load she is carrying. The time has arrived for the dominions to assume some of this load. You will agree with me that we must have the free use of the seas to market our exports. You will further agree that the Empire is bound together by the seaways. Destroy these ways of communication and the various parts of the Empire will fall a prey to any enemy stronger than the part in question. Sea power is the foundation rock upon which the Empire is built. If the Empire is to survive we must have the sea power necessary at all costs. We must make up our minds about that very definitely and vigorously pursue a policy to bring about the desired results.

You will also, I think, agree with me in my objection to the policy laid down by the Imperial conference namely that the main

effort in Empire defence is to fall on Great Britain and that the dominions are to be responsible for local defence. You will concur with me in the view that to allow the main effort in Empire defence to fall on Britain is scarcely consistent with our claims to sovereignty and equality and perhaps you will share with me the uncomfortable feeling that as a nation we are lacking in chivalry, generosity, and the capacity to see ourselves as others, even foreigners, see us. As soldiers you will readily accept my view that even an efficient local defence can make little or no contribution to the winning of a war. When you examine the interpretation which Canada has placed upon this agreement for local defence, particularly in the matter of naval defence, the defence of our ports and the like, you will realize that our whole seaboard is at the mercy of very light forces of a possible enemy and that our whole sea-borne trade will disappear at the outbreak of war unless the British Navy does for us what we have agreed to do for ourselves. I may go even further in assuming your agreement with what I have just said. I may, I think, assume that military institutes all over Canada agree with us, together with a great many other people in Canada who are normally silent and inarticulate. Why then, you ask, isn't something done about it?

The answer to that question is this: We are heavily in debt as a result of our efforts in the last war. We are in the midst of a great depression. Our revenues do not equal our expenditures and we are heavily taxed by three different sets of government, federal, provincial and municipal. This is the economic background, but back of that is the political situation. The fact is we are nationally immature. We have led a sheltered existence as a people living under the shadow of Great Britain since birth. Our people do not really know that "defence is greater than opulence"; that security is the foundation upon which the national life rests, that security should be the primary object of government; security first and foremost at whatever cost may be necessary. Perhaps we will never learn the lesson until we have been invaded, despoiled, insulted and humiliated.

Politicians, public men, the press, all know that defence expenditure, preparation for war and the like isn't 'good politics' unless there is a war on and when there is the ferocity of these people is terrific—but in peace, no. In the past the attitude of our people towards defence expenditures has been something like this: "Certain men want to wear uniform, drill and have sham battles; there are enough of them to be politically troublesome. Very well, we can afford to give them a bit of the national expenditure". They do so. I draw your attention to the fact when financial stringency comes along the defence estimates are the first estimates to be criticized and cut. The fact is that defence is not a serious matter to the Canadian people and defence will never be a serious matter to the Canadian people until they have been well punished—or educated. Politicians, public men and the press, contrary to the popular notion, do not lead but follow public opinion. Let there be no doubt about that. It is very natural when you come to think of it. They have their jobs, their careers and their profits to think about. They are very human.

It is clear to me that we approach a serious situation in international affairs. Peace is maintained today by a series of checks and balances, one nation or group of nations watching another nation or group of nations. There is no longer any real confidence in leagues, pacts, conferences and the like, perhaps there never was. More than ever nations are relying upon their own efforts to gain security. To-day men talk of solvency as the supreme national aim. Tomorrow it is possible that survival will overshadow all other issues. When that day comes you will be surprised to find that the very people who have rather looked down upon you as blood-thirsty fellows who like to wear gaudy clothes, with bits of ribbon on your chests of which you seem to be so foolishly proud, are now accusing you of negligence, neglect of duty and the like. They will say, "You were soldiers; you were students of war and international relations, how came you to leave us in ignorance of our situation. Why have you permitted us to face this storm of war empty-handed and defenceless? Why didn't you tell us?" And as you yourselves go out with untrained officers and men and lacking necessary equipment to make of your dead bodies a rampart behind which your critics and detractors in peace may seek to save themselves, you may well ask yourselves a similar question, "Why didn't we tell them?"

For many years the British Empire has been the greatest force in the world for peace, order, liberty, justice and decency in international relations. No intelligent person can read the newspapers today without realizing that more than ever this conception of the Empire is true. The nations of the world lean heavily upon us. They look to us for leadership, guidance and help. They trust us because they know that we covet nothing—threaten no one. They know that for the British Empire world peace, not any local peace but world peace, is the condition precedent to the progress and development of the countries which constitute the Empire. In a distracted world these distracted people view our great, peaceful and orderly Empire as the "shadow of a great rock in a thirsty land". In international affairs it is Britain that speaks. It is she who bears the burden but the world believes that behind her stand the dominions. Heavily taxed, bearing a great burden of debt, wearied with her efforts, I think that I have detected in these recent years a certain faltering, at times a certain lack of the old courage and the old touch. If this be so then the world is the loser thereby. You know the history of our race as well as I do. You are familiar with the occasions upon which the mother land has saved civilization no less "by her exertions than by her example". You know how in every walk in life we have inherited her traditions. Not the least of these traditions is the obligation of service to all mankind, to the weak, the oppressed and the enslaved everywhere. Shall we take up the torch and hold it high or shall we sit by with folded hands as the last chapter in a great epoch is written to a conclusion and a great and beneficent world institution passes from the stage in ruin and disaster?

I summarize my points as follows:—

1. The military and economic security of the nation should be the

prime object of government. Consideration of expenditures on defence should come first and not elsewhere in government programmes.

2. Freedom to use the seas is the condition precedent to the continued existence of the Empire.
3. Adequate naval strength must be provided by the Empire as a whole through the medium of balanced homogeneous Dominion Naval establishments.
4. The Empire as now existing must win every war in which it engages or be destroyed.
5. The alleged arrangement whereby Great Britain bears the major burden of defence and the Dominions are responsible for local defence is unsound because:
 - (a) It is by no means certain that Great Britain is equal to the task;
 - (b) Local defence cannot win a war and such local defence as we have is not an honest effort in that behalf;
 - (c) The alleged arrangement is not consistent with our claims to sovereignty and equality and our dignity and self respect.
6. That the appropriate time has arrived to settle and declare to the world the terms and conditions upon which the Empire is to present a united front in war.
7. The time has arrived (if indeed it has not passed) when the Dominions should assume their share of the cost of the Naval defence of the Empire. National expenditures and establishments to be based upon population, trade, marine tonnage and such other factors as determine national stature.
8. That expeditionary forces should be organized in the Dominions.
9. That local defence be provided on the basis of the existence of adequate naval forces and expeditionary (land) forces.
10. That public discussion should be stimulated on these matters and an organized attempt should be made to bring to the knowledge of the Canadian people the facts involved.

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THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

The Evolution of the Tank and of Anti-Tank Defence

By Major C. A. P. Murison, M.C., R.A.

IF ONE were to judge by innumerable articles in military journals and elsewhere many people regard the tank as the answer to each and every tactical problem. Whatever may be the case in the future that is a dangerous fallacy at the present time for with armies organized and equipped as they are today older tactical methods must apply and will continue to apply, at least during the first months of a campaign.

One reason will be sufficient by way of illustration. No nation can afford to build and maintain large numbers of expensive weapons like tanks which may become obsolete at any moment, due either to an improvement in design or to the invention of some powerful anti-tank weapon.

In spite, therefore, of the undoubted tactical value of the tank it is necessary to exercise some restraint in considering its employment, for, as Lord Kitchener truly remarked, "We have to make war as we must; not as we should like to".

It is for this reason that there is no intention in this lecture to consider the details of any particular problem. In war as in other human activities the future is largely based on the past and by understanding the past we will be in a better position to anticipate the future. Consequently the present purpose is to sketch in the historical background of this problem of tank and anti-tank and to show as far as possible how present ideas have gradually evolved from war experience and peace time experiment.

For the sake of convenience the subject is considered under two headings, first the tank and secondly the anti-tank.

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THE TANK

THE TROUBLE is to know where to begin. All or nearly all the lectures I have heard on the subject of tanks and their ways have been delivered by tank enthusiasts who, in their anxiety to furnish the tank with a military pedigree, have started back about 3500 B.C., with the war chariots of the Assyrians and have traced its descent through the Roman Tortoise, the wagon towers of Cyrus, the elephants of Darius, and the Knight in Armour to "Little Willie", the immediate forbear of the modern tank, which

was produced before the admiring eyes of its foster-parents Mr. Churchill and Col. Swinton one cold English morning in, I think, November, 1915.

I am no expert, however, on family trees, so I think I will start with the sons and daughters—for there were male and female tanks in those days—of "Little Willie" known as tanks Mark 1. These after much controversy, made their debut in small numbers on the Somme in the summer of 1916.

The tank, as everyone knows, was the British attempt, as gas had been the German, to restore the power of the offensive which had been nullified by a combination of machine guns and barbed wire and it is an interesting example of war psychology on both sides making the same initial mistake in their anxiety to try out their pet "bugaboo." The Germans at Ypres gave away their secret by launching their gas attack before sufficient quantities of gas were available to make the result decisive and the British on the Somme gave away the tank before they had produced sufficient numbers to exploit the initial surprise its first appearance created.

To give you some idea of the evolution of the the modern machine I propose to describe two or three different models as I come to them which are noteworthy because of the great advance they exemplify in design.

The first tank is the Mark 1 Tank. This was a heavy, cumbersome machine designed expressly for close co-operation with infantry in trench warfare. Its weight was 30 tons and its maximum speed about three miles per hour. It had a radius of action of from 12 to 15 miles and after 40 miles required a workshop overhaul, so you see it was not a very efficient machine mechanically and certainly not the type of machine that could be held back in reserve and launched quickly to the attack at the decisive point. This model could cross a 10-foot trench. The armament of the male tank was two 6-pounders and four light automatics and of the female tank six light automatics.

From a tactical point of view the employment of tanks during the war falls into four periods. The first is the period from the Somme to Passchendaele. During this period tanks were used in small packets, often over heavily shelled and water-logged ground and, while on occasions they achieved some notable successes, they were more often associated with costly failures, as for example the third battle of Ypres. The result of these failures was that the General Staff lost confidence in the tank and in consequence reduced the construction programme for 1918 from 4,000 to 1,350 machines.

On the other hand, this first period of tank warfare taught some very valuable lessons which subsequent experience has only served to confirm.

These were that:—

- (a) Tank attacks must be made in force.
- (b) Tank attacks require careful preparation and previous reconnaissance.
- (c) Ground must be chosen to suit the tanks.
- (d) There must be means of controlling tanks in battle.
- (e) There must be separate supply services for tanks.

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THE SECOND period of tank warfare is that embracing the Battle of Cambrai on the 20th November, 1917.

The Tank Corps plan for this battle, submitted on August 3rd, was to replace the usual artillery bombardment, which at third Ypres had used up 100,000 tons of shells costing £22,000,000 by a surprise tank attack.

The operation, as originally planned, was to be nothing more than a raid but the scope of the operation was considerably enlarged by G. H. Q. and as finally approved was to take the form of an attack in two phases:—

- (i) The penetration of four systems of trenches in a few hours without preliminary bombardment.
- (ii) Exploitation of success by seizing the important railway centre of Cambrai and the crossings over the river Sensee.

Six infantry divisions and nine tank battalions supported by 1,000 guns were to carry out the first phase and the cavalry corps the second.

The Tank Corps wished to retain three tank battalions for the second phase but this was disallowed.

As we know the first phase was a complete success resulting in the capture of 8,000 prisoners and 100 guns, but the second phase was a failure.

The battle, however, contributed its quota of lessons:—

- (a) It emphasized the value of reserve tanks. Of the 476 tanks employed in the initial attack on the 20th, only 49, formed in composite companies, were available on November 21st.
- (b) It brought out the fact that the existing tank was too slow and had too small a radius of action and also demonstrated the need for a smaller and faster tank for exploiting success. The outcome of this was the provision for 1918 of the Mark V tank and the Whippet tank.

The Mark V tank was a heavy tank, generally similar to Marks I, II, III and IV but its speed was increased from three to five miles an hour, its radius of action from 15 to 25 miles and its life without overhaul from 40 to 100 miles. In short it showed a marked improvement in mechanical efficiency over previous machines.

The Whippet was a lighter tank—it only weighed 14 tons as opposed to 30—having a maximum speed of eight miles per hour and a radius of action of 40 miles.

- (c) The battle demonstrated the vulnerability of tanks to short range artillery fire and the consequent necessity for artillery support.
- (d) The necessity for control of tanks in battle was emphasized, resulting in the first attempts to introduce R/T.

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THE THIRD period of tank warfare is that during which the Allies were on the defensive, staving off the great German offensive of the spring of 1918.

It exposed the fact that the use of tanks had not been studied.

Tank units were allotted to armies for the purpose of recovering, by counter-attack, localities of tactical importance in the "Battle Zone."

Thus tanks were relegated to a comparatively minor role and to carry it out had to be distributed in small groups along some 60 miles of front. As a result only some 50 per cent. of the available machines were employed and those that were committed were frittered away in a small number of small, almost isolated engagements during the first two or three days. The Fifth Army for example had 140 machines on March 21st—by the 24th it only had about 10 left. Naturally under these conditions no decisive results were achieved. The lesson that new weapons do not alter old principles had not yet been completely learnt.

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THE LAST period is that from August 8th to the Armistice.

In the battle of August 8th—"the black day of the German Army"—the Cambrai success was repeated by the Canadian Corps, 580 tanks taking part in the battle. Two battalions of Whippet tanks were engaged under the cavalry. This was possibly a mistake as they might have been better employed in attacking the German communications.

The main lesson of this period of the war so far as tanks were concerned was that the existing machines were too slow for open warfare.

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BY THE end of the war, then, a tank had been developed which had proved itself to be a successful close co-operation weapon for infantry but a weapon too slow and having too small a radius of action for open warfare. As a result a new tank, known as the Medium C, weighing 19½ tons and combining a maximum speed of eight miles per hour with a radius of action of 100 miles, was in course of production when the armistice was signed and would have been used in large numbers in 1919.

In addition to showing the direction in which mechanical improvement was necessary the experience gained in the war had resulted in the formulation of sound tactical principles regarding the employment of tanks. Consequently post war mechanical and tactical progress has been able to follow a clearly defined path.

Shortly after the war two decisions were made of great importance from the point of view of the future of the tank. The first was the decision to organize the post-war army for open warfare and the second the decision to form the Royal Tank Corps which came into existence in 1923. Thus a distinct bias was given to future tank design, organization and tactics.

The first result of the open warfare was the Vickers Medium Tank Mark I in 1923 which showed great advance on any previous design.

As this tank has formed the basis of all subsequent progress it is worth while mentioning a few of its characteristics. It weighed 12 tons and combined a maximum speed of 12 to 15 miles per hour with a radius of 120 miles. Its armament consisted of one 3-pounder and one Vickers machine gun co-axially mounted, and two Vickers machine guns in the hull. It was provided with a cupola to serve as the commander's look-out, a bulge in the side to take a wireless set, could cross a 6-foot trench, and carried a crew of five.

The main disadvantages of the machine when tried out were found to be:—

- (a) No separate control post for the commander.
- (b) Lack of engine power, making it a slow hill climber.
- (c) No means of internal control.

This machine was designed primarily for close co-operation with other arms.

The improvement in the tank was accompanied as might be expected by changes in minor tactics.

In the first place, as a result of the great increase in speed, infantry could no longer follow tanks as at Cambrai—this introduced the necessity for accurate timing of attacks.

In the second place the use of tanks to make the initial assault, rather than to accompany the infantry in the assault, resulting in

the tanks, when used, being treated as the principal assault arm and, as a natural corollary, in the necessity for forming a fire plan to assist the tanks rather than the infantry.

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THE NEXT milestone in the progress of the tank was the manoeuvres held in 1925, during which tanks were used for the first time independently against the enemy's rear and headquarters. This use of tanks brought out the need for a smaller machine for reconnaissance and the direct outcome was the first light tank.

Indirectly it led to the formation of the experimental armoured force on Salisbury Plain in 1927-28.

The object of this experiment was to provide a mechanized force capable of carrying out, by itself, the normal operations of reconnaissance, protection, assault, and pursuit.

The force, formed as it was of a heterogeneous collection of vehicles, was found to be ill-balanced and unwieldy and the principal lesson learned from the experiment was that any such force should be composed of vehicles possessing the same mobility and the same economic speed.

The application of these lessons was delayed until a Tank Brigade was formed out of the available machines in 1930 to take part in higher training. As a result of the experience gained on that occasion it was decided to withdraw all tanks from training with other arms in 1931 and 1932, and to concentrate them for purely tank training in order to study various battalion organizations and methods of deployment and the control of tanks in battle.

The principal tactical lessons learned from these experiments were:—

First, that the attack of field batteries, provided they have been sited to give mutual support is a difficult task.

Second, that attacks on marching columns must be quick if heavy casualties from anti-tank weapons are to be avoided.

Third, that in Mark V. tank actions it is essential to keep the enemy under constant observation.

Fourth, that the sooner the infantry can take over from tanks the better.

Fifth, that the timing of the tank and infantry attacks is difficult and requires careful arrangements.

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THAT concludes what I have to say about the tank. I have tried to show on the one hand the progress of the tank from the original Mark I., lacking both mobility and endurance, to the latest medium tank possessing both of these characteristics to a high degree, and

on the other hand I have tried to bring out the way in which, as a result of bitter experience and constant experiment, the original haphazard tactical methods have gradually been replaced by a sound tactical doctrine. Finally, I have tried to show how the original idea of using tanks solely in close co-operation with other arms has been added that of using them independently as an armoured force. It would be vain to prophesy that anything like finality has yet been reached, especially in tank design, but I do not imagine that the tank formations and units that mobilize for the next war will differ very greatly in principle from those that have now been evolved.

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ANTI-TANK DEFENCE

WHEN the tank first made its appearance it was, of course, unexpected and so encountered no anti-tank defensive measures.

Then the initial tactical errors in the employment of tanks on the Somme and at Ypres had the fortunate effect of leading the Germans to under-estimate their potentialities. Consequently, even then, little material was expended on anti-tank defence. Artillery was regarded as the main anti-tank weapon and the Germans went so far as to place two guns per division in concrete in the forward area and to study the problem of engaging tanks by indirect fire—a simpler problem then than it is today owing to the low speed of the wartime tank. Beyond this they did little after the fateful 8th of August, 1918. It was this battle that opened their eyes to the power of the tank and from then on anti-tank defence became to them a matter, almost literally, of life and death. The measures taken were comprehensive and included:—

- (a) The attachment of anti-tank officers to the staffs of armies, corps, divisions and brigades to co-ordinate anti-tank measures.
- (b) The introduction of an anti-tank rifle. This was a heavy weapon—it weighed 36 pounds—firing single shots. It used armour piercing ammunition of .53 calibre. It was slow, conspicuous and had a kick like a mule, characteristics which naturally did not endear it to the troops.
- (c) The organization and siting of the artillery to cope with tank attacks.
- (d) The use of river obstacles and mine fields.
- (e) The organization of anti-tank forts under one commander, consisting of:—

- Four field guns.
- Two low trajectory minenwerfer.
- Four anti-tank rifles.
- Two machine guns firing A. P. ammunition.

Fortunately perhaps for us these measures were taken too late

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for in essentials they were sound and contain the underlying principles of passive anti-tank defence today.

The German programme for 1919 included the construction of .5 machine guns.

On the Allied side there was no necessity seriously to consider anti-tank defence for at no time did the Germans possess sufficient tanks to cause anxiety.

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IN THE period immediately following the war anti-tank defence received scant attention in England. To put it briefly I think that there was a general feeling that as a great industrial country we were well placed to continue to lead the world in the production of armoured fighting vehicles. Consequently we regarded our task as being to devote our attention to the development of tanks and to leave the question of anti-tank defence to less favoured nations whose efforts we should study simply to enable our tanks to defeat them.

If that were indeed our attitude the grim necessities of finance brought rapid disillusionment for though we might continue to possess the best tanks it was soon very obvious that we should not be allowed to have the most tanks. Once that was brought home anti-tank defence began to receive serious consideration and has since continued to do so.

Anti-tank defence is of two kinds—active and passive.

Active defence means the offensive and is by far the most effective method. Its instruments are the tank itself and the aeroplane.

The tank is unquestionably at the present time the best anti-tank weapon and there seems little doubt that on the outbreak of war it must seek out and destroy the enemy's tanks and not till that is accomplished turn its attention to harrying armoured forces.

In seeking out the enemy armoured fighting vehicles the tank will require the assistance of reconnaissance aircraft but bombers can also play an important part by bombing the tank formations when at rest.

If this reasoning be correct, unremitting vigilance accompanied by offensive action by tanks and bombers should have its reward in the somewhat scarred and harried tank units that eventually cross the starting line to pit themselves against the anti-tank measures of infantry divisions.

It is with these measures, constituting the passive side of anti-tank defence, that I am now going to deal.

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THE MEANS available are:—

Artillery.
Special A. T. weapons.
Machine guns and rifles.
Mines.
Obstacles.

- (a) **Artillery.**—Generally speaking it is uneconomical to site field artillery in forward positions under direct observation for anti-tank purposes since in such positions they must remain and consequently until a tank attack develops they constitute just so many guns neutralized by the enemy.

On the other hand field artillery employed on normal tasks should be sited in positions from which they can engage with direct fire tanks that have penetrated the forward defences. So disposed they constitute a second line of anti-tank defence and if care has been taken to ensure that the battery positions are mutually supporting, this second line of defence presents, as I said when considering tank tactics, a difficult problem for the tank.

Light artillery, if the necessity arises, may be employed as anti-tank weapons in the area occupied by the forward battery.

Behind the field artillery zone anti-aircraft guns can be utilized to give depth to the defence.

- (b) **Special Anti-Tank Weapons.**—These are infantry weapons designed primarily for the protection of the forward infantry. They were introduced to satisfy the very reasonable demand that tanks should be stopped in front of the forward defences, for, as one commander put it, the infantry would rather be protected than revenged.

Whenever possible these weapons should be sited in depth in the forward zone, some being in or close to the forward localities and great care is necessary to ensure that their positions are concealed and, if possible, protected from direct attack.

- (c) **Machine Guns and Rifles.**—The vital parts of a tank are protected against armour-piercing .303 inch projectiles but the fire of machine guns at close range has the effect of forcing tank crews to close their lookout apertures and so increase their difficulties.
- (d) **Mines.**—Mine fields are a perfectly feasible proposition in mobile warfare though a large number of mines are required for a minefield of any extent. Probably the most effective use of minefields is to reduce the width of possible tank approaches and so divert the tanks into the zones swept by the anti-tank weapons.

All minefields should be sited so as to be covered by small arms fire to prevent their removal.

Dummy minefields can be used to supplement the real ones and as the two are indistinguishable in an air photograph, the result is to impose caution and cause delay.

- (e) **Obstacles**—Obstacles may be natural or artificial but in mobile warfare there will seldom be time to make artificial obstacles. Consequently infantry in defence should always be placed in or behind natural obstacles where these exist.

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TROOPS must not only be protected when holding a position however, they must also be protected when on the move and the local protection of a marching column against armoured fighting vehicles presents considerable difficulties.

In its most simple form the problem involves protection against armoured cars. As these vehicles are to a great extent restricted to roads the solution in this case is to block all roads leading into the march road. This can be done by means of anti-tank weapons, by mines, or by artificial obstacles. In a country well provided with side roads the number of anti-tank weapons available is barely sufficient for the protection of the fighting portion of the column while the use of obstacles has the disadvantage of closing, or at least restricting, the use of the side roads by cross traffic. Consequently the most satisfactory form of protection against armoured car attack will generally be a combination of anti-tank weapons and mines, the anti-tank weapons protecting the fighting troops and mines continuing the protection after the fighting troops have passed. A point to note is that the anti-tank weapons themselves require some protection and that the mines have to be covered by fire so that protective detachments have to be found for both types of block. In other words the road will have to be piquetted, the troops detailed for this purpose starting the march at the head of the column and being posted as required as the march progresses, later falling in at the rear.

When an attack by tanks is anticipated on the other hand protection by the simple expedient of piquetting the route is no longer practicable for the column is vulnerable anywhere along its length. Consequently the number of piquettes required would be prohibitive.

Under these conditions the problem is analogous to that of anti-aircraft defence; that is to say, it involves the protection of a moving area. The rate of movement, however, will be reduced to a snail's pace and it is probable that the enemy will achieve his purpose, without ever being forced to attack, if he can induce his opponent to adopt such a tedious method.

In other words, protection of this nature, while theoretically possible, is, from a tactical point of view, most unsatisfactory. Consequently, it seems somewhat optimistic to expect a force of the nature of an infantry division to protect itself on the move against a serious tank attack, or even the threat of one, and at the same time expect to reach its destination in time or in a condition to be of use.

In saying this, however, I do not mean to imply that the tank can immobilize an army. Every modern army has tanks and these tanks used as a flank guard and assisted by early information collected by aircraft and armoured cars are undoubtedly the best means of protecting a moving column from tank attack.

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SO MUCH for the problem of the tank and anti-tank. I have tried to put both sides of it before you. It is an interesting problem and one to which a final solution is not yet in sight. As you know, there is a saying that every dog has its day and taking everything into consideration I think the majority will incline to the view that today is the day of the tank. How long that day will last no one can say but underlying the whole history of war has been the story of the age-long conflict between weapons and armour and in the end the weapon has always won. As evidence that the struggle is not yet over I should like to close with an extract from the annual report of the Chief of Staff of the American Army for 1931-32.

A factor complicating tank design is the continuous progress in producing bullets of extraordinary armour-piercing qualities. A very high velocity bullet (5,800 feet per second) has recently been developed which gives promise of being able to pierce any armour now carried on tanks or other fighting vehicles. If this development should prove capable of general application in all types of small arms, tank design and even the whole theory of mechanization will necessarily undergo revolutionary changes.

The German Crisis

By Captain H. G. Scott

THE news that has been coming from Europe in the last few months has been of a very serious character. What it amounts to is this—that although it is only fifteen years since the close of the Great War, Europe is again facing the danger of war and once again that danger comes from Germany.

It will perhaps help to an understanding of the present situation if it is recalled that in the summer of 1914 Germany was one of the greatest nations in the world, apparently with a great future before her. She made her effort for world power in the War and failed, failed moreover by a comparatively small margin. Under the terms of the peace which followed the War Germany lost all her overseas colonies, practically all her navy and merchant marine, one-seventh of her home territory in Germany inhabited by one-twelfth of her home population. She had to submit to the occupation of the Rhineland for a number of years by foreign troops, some of whom were black troops, and she had to accept a demand for a huge indemnity, which in fact she did not pay. It was a grim ending to a great dream.

The years that followed the War were in Germany years of despondency and confusion with no clear political leadership. Germany was somewhat in the position of a ship at sea without a port to steer for, without a pilot to steer her, and without a helm to steer by. Out of that period of confusion has come the present situation, which is associated in the minds of all with the name of the man who is at present leading Germany—Hitler.

It will be remembered that Hitler is not a German but an Austrian by birth, with no advantages of family or wealth to begin with. This makes his rise to his present position in Germany the more remarkable. The explanation of that rise perhaps is that Hitler embodies for the German people their passionate resentment at their defeat in the War and their equally passionate desire for the restoration of their former position in the world and for revenge on their enemies. In some respects the rise of Hitler to power resembles that of Louis Napoleon in France in the years 1848-52. Only time can tell whether the parallel in the careers of the two men will be continued further.

As far as the character of Hitler is concerned, there appears to be a general recognition of his complete honesty and disinterested

patriotism. He moreover appears to be somewhat of a novelty in Germany in modern times in respect to the quality of his oratory. The average German political speaker seems to have been solidly argumentative rather than inspiring or emotional. Hitler on the contrary is emotion personified. His speeches contain few ideas, but those few are the basic simple ones of Germany's resentment at her treatment and demand for restitution and they have been driven home by constant repetition at the top of a pair of powerful lungs. At any rate, the net result of Hitler's efforts has been to give him a position in Germany which it is not easy for the people of British nationality to realize and which may perhaps be compared to a sort of combination of Moses and Mohammed—Moses to lead Germany back to the Promised Land of Greatness, Mohammed to do it sword in hand. Remembering the circumstances of his rise to power, it seems inevitable that there should be jealousy of this newcomer amongst some, at any rate of the old aristocratic families of Germany and that his lot must be that of almost all usurpers—he must conquer if he is to survive. Only by the avenue of victory can he find escape and pardon for what has been done in Germany by him or in his name to the German people.

From the outset the policy of Hitler and his supporters has been marked by certain ominous features—a complete contempt for law and the rights of others and a resort to violence and brutality wherever such resort was thought likely to serve the ends in view. The Hitler or Nazi party never secured a majority at a free election in Germany. At the last free election they secured rather less than 50 per cent. of the total votes cast but they managed to form a temporary alliance with the minority party then holding power in Germany and by means of that alliance forced their way into office and power. Once in office they proceeded to destroy the parliamentary representative system of government, and the main device by which they did so was the creation of disorder in Germany which might serve as a pretext for the use of armed force to suppress disorder and with it the normal forms of government. In practice this meant that the Nazis stirred up riots and conflicts in various parts of Germany, and then declared that since it was clear that the regular governments and governing authorities could not keep order, it was necessary that a party which did command disciplined force must step in and do it for them and that, in order to do so, arbitrary power must be assumed and armed force must be used wherever necessary. The result was the disappearance in a few weeks of every regularly elected parliamentary government in Germany.

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WHAT happened in Bavaria may serve well as an illustration of the general policy. The elected government of Bavaria was definitely hostile to Hitler and the Nazis. After the Nazis had seized power in North Germany, the Bavarian government authorities were asked if they were afraid of a similar course being followed in Bavaria. They replied that it was quite impossible, that the Nazis

would never dare to cross the Main and enter South Germany. Within a few days of this opinion being expressed, the streets of Munich, the Bavarian capital, were suddenly filled with marching, disciplined columns of Nazis storm troops, the Nazi flag appeared all over the city, and before the day ended the Bavarian authorities, penned up in their government buildings, had surrendered power to the Nazi leaders.

Once in power Hitler swiftly freed himself from all parliamentary control. From a completely subservient Reichstag he got a vote which allowed him to dispense with parliament and to govern by decree for four years if desired. The suppression of all free opinion in Germany followed. The press was completely muzzled, and became what it now is, the mere organ of the government for the purpose of propaganda and of giving to the people of Germany only such news as the Nazi Government wishes them to learn.

The position of foreign correspondents in Germany has become difficult and even dangerous. The case of Mr. Panter, the Munich correspondent of the Daily Telegraph is an illustration of this. He was arrested and imprisoned without any charge being made against him. For several days he was not allowed to see the British Consul or any friend. When urgent representations were made by the British Government in Berlin he was released after nine days of confinement, still without any charge being made against him, and told to leave Germany within 48 hours. The real cause of both arrest and expulsion was the fact that he had reported to his paper the actual character of a review held by Hitler at Kelheim in Bavaria, where over 20,000 Nazi storm troops, equipped and disciplined and most of them armed, were inspected by Hitler. Orders were given beforehand to the press that nothing was to be said in the reports about the essentially military character of the parade and no photographs which would indicate its true character were allowed to be published.

The effect of the Nazi attitude towards the publication of news is that foreign correspondents are finding it difficult to get news and highly desirable to conceal the sources of their information when it is obtained. Dispatches have to be garbled in respect of dates and places of origin in order to prevent the Nazi authorities wreaking vengeance on the informants, and in some cases correspondents have even found it desirable to leave Germany and send their dispatches home from points just beyond the frontier in order to secure their arrival untampered with. The security of the mails has ceased to exist in Germany. A censorship such as was familiar in the War is now in full force, and even mails not originating in Germany but passing across from one foreign country to another have been opened and tampered with.

At the outset of his administration Hitler launched violent attacks on certain sections of the population. That which has attracted most attention and brought on Germany the condemnation of the world was the attack on the Jews. In this matter it is both fair and

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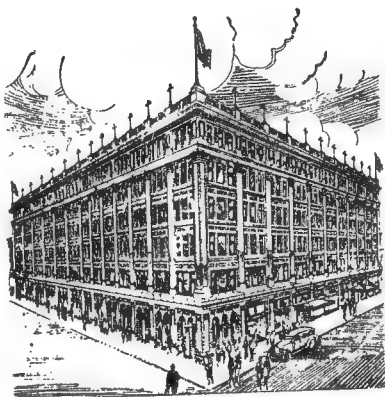
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sensible to consider both sides of the story. The Hitler case is as follows: Hitler and his supporters allege that while the Jews are numerically only a small minority in Germany, about one per cent., their influence in certain sections of the community has been out of all proportion to their numbers. This applies to some of the great professions, such as finance, law, medicine and the German Civil Service. Moreover, they say that where that has been the case the Jews have tried to obtain control of these professions and to form a close corporation so far as possible. It is alleged further that the result of this Jewish penetration has been a deterioration in the tone of German life. In particular it is said that the German Civil Service, which before the War was not only efficient but also incorruptible, has ceased to be incorruptible as the result of the Jewish influence in it. In one instance the German attitude has been perhaps characteristically unsporting. When Poland was brought back to life as the result of the Versailles Treaty, lands which had been in German hands for over a century were restored to Polish control. In those lands were large numbers of Jews and many of these Jews decided to leave what had become Polish territory and move westwards into what was still Germany. At first they were welcomed by the German authorities because they were useful as propaganda material. It was possible for the Germans to say to the world at large: "Look at these good German citizens who refuse to live under the cruel and barbaric rule of Poland and who have left their homes in order to remain under the German flag." It was, however, soon discovered that the newcomers were obtaining some of the best positions in the communities to which they had moved, and then the German tone swiftly changed, and "the good German citizens" became "the blood-sucking Semitic vampires" whom it was the duty of every good German Nazi to persecute with mediaeval enthusiasm.

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TO THESE accusations the Jewish answer is, of course, in the first place a denial of the corrupt character of their influence, and, secondly, the exceedingly forceful contention that, even if the German charges were true, it would not excuse the adoption of what amounts to mob violence against a whole community indiscriminately. It is almost certain that there has been some exaggeration in the tale of Jewish persecution in Nazi Germany, some exaggeration and even positive inaccuracy; but even if due allowance is made for that, it is quite impossible to doubt that things have been done in the course of that persecution for which no defence whatsoever is possible and which simply could not have happened in a British community. The comment which seems inevitable is that if these are the methods by which a great nation like the German has to defend itself against a small minority like the Jews, then German civilization has made little advance since the Middle Ages, for such things as these suggest the mentality of the Middle Ages with the machinery of today.

The treatment of the Communists of Germany has been as ruthless as that of the Jews. It has been alleged by the Nazis that if

severe measures had not been taken against the Communists, the latter would have seized power in Germany. The answer to this statement would seem to be that the Communist vote in the German elections never came near being a majority. At the last free elections it was only about one-fifth of the total votes. The Communist danger would, therefore, seem to have been much exaggerated to suit the Nazi ends. With the suppression of the Communists has gone also that of the Socialists and almost every section of German Liberalism and democracy. The workmen's trade unions have been destroyed and their funds confiscated, even down to the paltry personal bank deposits of individual workmen, and the women of Germany have found themselves suddenly excluded from almost all participation in public life.

Not only have these measures been marked by that same ugly element of violence and brutality which characterized the attack on the Jews, but their effect must certainly be to create in Germany, thousands, if not millions, of people living under a bitter sense of injury, and harbouring in their hearts the desire for a revenge, which is likely to be of a somewhat terrible nature, if the day of opportunity ever dawns. The Nazis have set the example of violence and cruelty. It is at least possible that they will have to learn that that example is dangerously infectious.

Yet another episode in the Nazi record must be noted as both deplorable and almost incomprehensible. That is the attack which was made on the gathering of the Catholic Apprentices in Munich in the Spring of 1933. In that case there was a great assembly of young men from all over Germany, announced long beforehand and in no way opposed by the Government. It was apparently quite non-political. Certainly it made no public sign whatever of opposition to the Nazi regime. Yet it was attacked by Nazi mobs and broken up under circumstances of the utmost violence and brutality. What motive lay behind this action it seems very difficult to ascertain. It is possible that the Nazi authorities desired to make it perfectly plain to all concerned that no rival authority or organization of any kind whatsoever would be tolerated in Germany, but if so, the method of demonstration was of a character likely to leave enduring resentment behind it of a powerful nature. It is the more remarkable in that Hitler himself is a Roman Catholic.

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HITLER has been generous in promises to all sections of the German people. It is probable that he will find some at any rate of his promises difficult of fulfilment. The land question is an illustration of that difficulty. To the poorer classes of Germany he has promised the break-up and distribution of some at any rate of the great landed estates throughout the country, many of which have been virtually bankrupt in recent years. Yet to the powerful landed aristocracy, amongst whom he has found some of his strongest supporters, he has apparently given assurances that

they need have no fear of an attack upon their ancestral properties. How he will reconcile these inconsistent policies will be one of the interesting problems of internal policy in Germany hereafter.

It certainly ought not to be overlooked that Hitler has brought to Germany as a whole, and particularly to the younger section of the people, a new feeling of purpose and leadership in life. The effect of the constant emotional gatherings, with their disciplined marching columns and waving flags and their furiously patriotic speeches has been tremendous. There is a new sense of public service, of self-sacrifice, and comradeship, which must be reckoned as beneficial, and assuredly of invigorating force. The whole national life has been put onto what may be called a basis of the offensive. With that spirit Europe and the world will almost certainly have to reckon. Whether the price paid for it has been too high and whether the eventual result can be other than disastrous for Germany and the world it is too soon to estimate. Probably, as far as the Germans themselves are concerned, the touchstone of the whole is eventual success or failure. If the Hitler policy leads to victory, he and his policy will be acclaimed as semi-divine. If it leads to defeat, he may suffer the fate of Napoleon III and Germany may go through a phase which will surpass the Commune of 1871 in its terror.

The internal policy of Germany may be a matter that concerns the Germans only. There are, however, other aspects of the Nazi policy which are of concern beyond their frontiers. One such is the militarisation of Germany. As to that there cannot be the smallest shadow of doubt and one has to be in Germany only a very few days to see it. All over the country are the uniformed marching columns and the waving flags. The official explanation that this is just a matter of the physical training of the youth of Germany is not worth consideration. Bomb throwing under skilled professional military instructors is not necessary to the health of young men nor are rifles and bayonets essential to harmless exercises. The great rally of the Nazis in Nuremberg at the end of August was the occasion of the concentration of 500,000 men, most of them uniformed, drilled and equipped on an entirely military basis, thousands of them carrying arms. The advance in drill efficiency and material equipment which those Nazi troops have made since Hitler's advent to power is most impressive and most significant. It is doubtful just how far the material re-armament of Germany has gone. Almost certainly it has gone far beyond what is permitted under the Treaty of Versailles, even if it has not yet reached the pitch of dangerous perfection which the French authorities allege. There is, however, no doubt about the moral re-armament of the country. In that respect Germany is again the Germany of 1914.

The foreign policy of Germany is, therefore, of supreme importance and that policy is dominated by one tremendous purpose—the restoration of the lost territories of Germany. How that purpose is made clear may perhaps be illustrated by the Hall of the

Marshals in Munich. On the front wall of that building there hang twelve great wreaths, and beneath each wreath a name is engraved on the wall. Germans who stand before these wreaths do so bare-headed. The names so carved beneath the wreaths are the names of the lost territories of Germany. One of them "Rhine and Ruhr" has been recovered. The rest are still in foreign hands. "Alsace-Lorraine" is there. "Schleswig" is there. "The Colonies" are there. "Posen", "Silesia" "Dantzic and Memelland", "West Prussia" "Eupen and Malmedy" are there. Very significantly "South Tirol" is there, which never belonged to Germany but was an Austrian province till it was assigned to Italy at the close of the War. Just as the crepe which covered the statue of Strassburg in the Place de la Concorde in Paris from 1871 to 1918 symbolized an open wound in the heart of France and a threat to the peace of Europe, so do these wreaths in Munich symbolize the German craving for a restoration which almost certainly can never be obtained except at the cost of a great war.

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FOR THE moment Germany is probably not ready to face a first-class power or powers such as France or Poland. The line of least resistance lies for the present elsewhere; in the direction of Austria. Let it be remembered that Austria in the War was not the enemy but the ally of Germany and that Austria is a kindred country. Roughly speaking, the relation of Austria to Germany is not unlike that of Canada to the United States. Both countries are of the same racial stock—German. Both speak the same language—German. The population of Germany is about ten times that of Austria, much as that of the United States is to Canada. Before the Nazi party seized power in Germany it is certain that the majority of Austrians favoured union with Germany. If only as a matter of commonsense economics, such a union was in the interest of Austria which has been left by the war settlement a small and poor country of about eight million people with a capital, Vienna, which in size and equipment is still designed as the head of an empire of nearly 50 millions. The union was forbidden in the peace treaties simply because France and her allies feared the strength of a united Germany and Austria which together would form a solid block of 70 million people in the heart of Europe.

With the advent of the Hitler government in Germany opinion in Austria has changed, and at present it is estimated that about 70 per cent. of the Austrian people are opposed to union with Germany, and only about 30 per cent. in favour of it, that minority being drawn mainly from the younger section of the people and from the educated city classes who have been left unemployed by the economic depression and are ready for any change which may help them somehow.

The attitude of Germany towards Austria when it was realized that Austrian opinion was against the Nazi party, was quite characteristic. The violent bully at once became manifest. One of the few Austrian economic resources left unharmed by the War has been

the tourist trade. The beauty of Austrian scenery, especially in the Austrian Tirol, has always been a great attraction for tourists, of whom naturally the majority come from Germany. The Nazi government imposed a tax of 1000 marks, equal to \$250, on every German going to Austria as a tourist. The immediate result was to ruin the tourist trade of Austria. One illustration of this may suffice. The little town of Kufstein, just within the Austrian boundary from Germany, has depended greatly on the tourist traffic in the past. In the month of August, 1932, 15,000 German tourists visited the town, all of them leaving a little money in it. In the month of August, 1933, the number of tourists of all nationalities to visit the town was only 4,000. The result for hotels and shops and transportation agencies and other kinds of business may be imagined. It has meant ruin for the town.

If, however, the German action had been confined to such measures as this it might have been considered harsh and inconsiderate but not more. German action did not so stop. During the summer of 1933 the Austrian government issued a large poster, which was shown all over the country, at stations, on public holdings in the cities, and elsewhere. That poster gave a detailed list of the outrages committed in Austria since the beginning of 1933 by the Nazis of Germany and their allies in Austria. The list numbered 25 different outrages, and included attempts to assassinate Austrian cabinet ministers, the bombing with fatal results of a motor car full of Austrian police, attempts to kidnap Austrian frontier guards, and the murder of one of them, blowing up of railways and public buildings in Austria. At Kufstein, the town above mentioned, in July, a young Austrian frontier guard was patrolling his beat, when fifteen Nazis came across the frontier from Germany and without any excuse or provocation whatever, riddled him with bullets and left him dead on the road. He was carried back to Kufstein and there given a public funeral. One of the chief mourners in the procession was Dr. Steidl, an Austrian cabinet minister, who marched in the procession with his arm in a sling as the result of an attempt made shortly before by the Nazis to assassinate him.

During the summer German aeroplanes have on several occasions flown across the frontier and dropped proclamations urging the Austrian people to revolt against their own government and from Munich week after week have been sent out radio broadcasts to the same effect. From Germany across the frontier has come a stream of cash subsidies to the Austrian Nazis to maintain their active enthusiasm and conversely across the frontier from Austria into Germany has gone a trickle of escaping Nazis to be concentrated in South Germany in a military camp and there trained for action against Austria. It is whispered that the Austrian government was not really very anxious to prevent these escapes, on the ground that open enemies concentrated in Germany were less dangerous than secret enemies scattered about Austria—and less expensive also, since the Germans now have to support their allies.

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IT IS not surprising that there is an atmosphere of tension on the frontier. The Austrian regular troops garrisoning the frontier towns have been given orders not to go within two kilometres of the frontier in order to avoid the risk of attack by Nazis from the other side and the frontier guards are now kept under cover and in groups. One has only to ask what would be the effect in Canada if such attacks as these were being made continually from the United States upon Canada in order to force Canada to accept annexation to the States if one wishes to realize what the German conduct towards Austria has done towards alarming not only Austria but all Europe.

It is believed that the Germans planned to carry out in Austria in June, 1933, the same sort of adventure as they successfully carried out in Munich, as above recounted. German Nazi agents went to Vienna, evidently hoping that they could stir up a revolt there against the Austrian government and instal a Nazi government favorable to the policy of Hitler and the German Nazis. The plot, however, failed altogether, thanks to the courage and energy of the Austrian Chancellor, Dolfuss. The Austrian Government was on the alert and was loyally supported by the Austrian police and the bulk of the Austrian army. As a result the German agents on their arrival in Vienna were at once informed that they were not wanted and were escorted back to the frontier and expelled from the country, while their Nazi allies in Austria were cowed into practical submission or mere isolated outrages.

With the failure of this attempt the German hour of opportunity passed as far as Austria was concerned, for the course of events in Germany brought about a change in the attitude of Italy. Ever since the end of the War one of the main features of European politics has been the strained relations, not to say the hostility, between Italy and France, arising mainly from their rivalry in North Africa and the Italian ambitions for expansion there at the expense of France. The prospect, however, of German absorption of Austria, accompanied by such ominous signs as the German claim to South Tirol, now in Italian hands and considered by Italy of vital importance to the security of her northern frontier, has led Italy to reconsider her whole position in Europe. The Italian government of Mussolini has no wish to have a great united German nation full of the aggressive spirit of the Nazi party, on her northern frontier. Austria as a small buffer state between Germany and Italy is too valuable to the latter country for her to acquiesce in the absorption of the little country. The result has been an open assurance of Italian support to Chancellor Dolfuss in his plucky fight for his country's independence against German bullying. Dolfuss paid a visit to Italy during the Autumn and conferred with Mussolini, and there were indications that the conference has at least brought into the realm of possibility a scheme of co-operation between the two countries and even perhaps an ambitious plan for a great economic alliance between the whole of the Danubian countries under the patronage of Italy. The effect of such an alliance might be to

draw the trade of all Central Europe south through the Italian port of Triest and thereby revive the prosperity of that city, so greatly diminished since its transfer from Austrian to Italian rule at the end of the War.

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THE change in the Italian attitude towards Germany brought about an immediate relaxation in the tension between France and Italy. It also probably had something to do with the fact of the Italian army holding its summer manoeuvres in Piedmont conveniently close to the Brenner frontier of Italy, across which excellent rail and road communications lead to the German-Austrian frontier in Tirol. It was believed that Italy held three divisions ready on the Brenner to meet the possibility of a German or Nazi invasion of Tirol. A matter of six hours would be sufficient for these divisions to make their presence felt on the German frontier and during the Autumn the talk on the streets in Nunnbruck was that the Italians might be expected in Tirol before the winter began. It is at least possible that it was this Italian readiness that both prevented any German invasion of Austria and made necessary the Italian advance from the Brenner.

The suggestion of Italian leadership of a confederation of the Danube states is of great interest. If it were carried into effect it would mean that something like the lines of the old Roman Empire would again come into existence with Rome as the head of a great political system guarding the line of the Danube while the other great Latin nation, France, held that of the Rhine against the German barbarians. If one remembers that Mussolini has repeatedly held out to his countrymen the prospect of a revival of the old glories of Rome and if it also realised that such a scheme would mean not only prestige but solid commercial gains in respect of trade it will be seen how powerfully it might well appeal to a man of such combined imagination, ambition and practical shrewdness as Mussolini.

Finally, there is another aspect of the plan which is perhaps worth consideration. Its scope, its creative vision, its character of international combination and elimination of petty national isolation, all suggest at least the possibility that Jewish influence is at work in it, and that in this scheme may be seen one of the results of the German attack on the Jews, and one indication of the price which Germany may have to pay for that attack.

The situation may possibly be summed up by saying that as the result of the Nazi policy and action Germany has aroused against herself the suspicion and hostility of almost the whole of Europe. The effect is that Hitler's promises of revived economic prosperity and the restoration of the lost territories have become even more difficult of fulfilment than they might have been before his rise to power. If that fact becomes clear to the minds of the German people, it may well lead to a revulsion of feeling in Germany which will be

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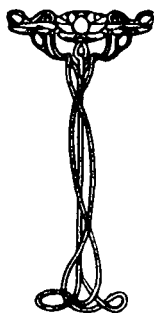
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fraught with grim results to the Nazi leaders and their main supporters. It may bring on Germany another great disaster, possibly even the break-up of the Germanic unity so laboriously brought about at so great a cost by Bismarck, and a return to something not unlike the system in existence in Europe before 1866. In the meantime, however, it would seem that the great German nation has reverted to something approaching to mediaeval barbarism, and that as a result of that reversion the peace and the civilization of Europe are in great danger.



Lord Charles Cornwallis

A Short Study Specially Considering His Service in America.

By *Lieut.-Col. E. R. Selby, D.S.O., V.D., C.A.M.C.*

IN THE history of the British Empire I find record of no one who won the confidence and the affection of his people under more adverse conditions than did Lord Charles Cornwallis; and furthermore I find record of no one who so retained this esteem to the end of his days and who was so repeatedly employed during many years as the man for the emergency during successive Empire crises.

He was born of the English aristocracy December 31st, 1738, and, receiving a military training, joined the Grenadier Guards at 18 years of age. He studied at the best military academy of his time and travelled in the continent to complete his military education. He received his lieutenant-colonelcy when 22 years of age and commanded his battalion that summer in very heavy fighting, whilst the following year his battalion greatly distinguished itself and he was specially noted for his personal valor.

When 24 years of age he succeeded to the earldom and, returning to England, entered regular political life. In the House of Lords he persistently and constantly resisted all policies tending to the taxation and coercion of the colonists in America. Also he maintained his military associations and trained with the troops each year so that in 1775, at the age of 37 years he had attained the rank of lieutenant-general.

He accepted appointment for service in America and sailed in February, 1776 with seven regiments, landing at Halifax after a three months voyage. Sir William Howe was in command of the forces with Sir Henry Clayton his second.

Negotiations with the revolutionary forces having failed, Sir William Howe decided on an attack on New York. On August 24th he landed from Gravesend Bay on the lower end of Long Island with 20,000 men. The country here was fairly level but three miles away on his left and extending obliquely up the island towards its centre, stretched the Brooklyn Heights. These had been strongly entrenched and fortified and were held by the revolutionary general Putnam with 9,000 men. Into these heights from the British position, one road led directly and one obliquely, whilst a third extended far up the island in the valley.

Sir William Howe decided on a flanking movement and on the third night after darkness fell he assembled the greater part

of his forces on the valley road. As these troops captured the American patrol watching this highway they were formed up before daylight on an undefended road that led up the heights with the defenders wholly unaware of their movements. At midnight the remaining British forces had attacked along the roads that led directly into the American position and so fully occupied the attention of the defenders that the flanking movement was a complete surprise and the American left was rapidly rolled up. Lord Cornwallis' duty in this engagement was to march his troops across the height of land and to the marshy ground on the other side and so to prevent the escape of the enemy forces in this sector. This he was successful in doing, capturing General Lord Stirling, who had commanded the American right. The casualties on both sides were about equal, but the British captured over 1,100 prisoners (including three generals) and the defending artillery, consisting of seven guns.

Following this action the remaining enemy forces were hemmed in in an area of about one square mile and with their backs to the river. Sir William Howe refused the advice of his officers to make a frontal attack, hoping to force surrender with few casualties, and so two nights later the whole enemy force escaped across the river. And he did not attack New York until 17 days later, when he encountered very little resistance.

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ON THE upper and western side of Manhattan Island the Americans had fortified and garrisoned a very strong position, Fort Washington. And opposite, on the right bank of the Hudson, they had constructed a similarly strong position, Fort Lee. These had been intended to bar the upper Hudson from the British frigates and in November Howe planned to attack these. On the 15th he appeared before and invested Fort Washington and the next day took it by assault, losing over 1,500 killed, but taking over 3,000 prisoners and immense quantities of stores.

He then commissioned Lord Cornwallis to take Fort Lee, and his advent to command marked the commencement of forceful, sustained action and a genuine attempt to exploit victory.

Three nights after the capture of Fort Washington, Cornwallis, with a force of 5,000 crossed the river about five miles upstream. His men hauled some guns up an extremely rough road to a commanding position, and he came down on the fort so rapidly that General Greene, who was commanding, was barely able to escape with his garrison of 2,000 men although he abandoned all his artillery and stores.

Cornwallis however did not fight with a limited objective, and he hotly pursued Greene, who fled with his forces westward to the fords of the Hackensack, which here parallels the Hudson at a dis-

tance of about three miles. The American troops were carrying their muskets only, and so were able to escape across the river.

Washington was now afraid to risk battle. His stores had been seriously depleted by these reverses, and his men were leaving in great numbers. So he retreated across New Jersey with Cornwallis in such close and steady pursuit that on the first of December when the British forces were entering New Brunswick, the American forces had not yet cleared the further outskirts of the town. Since the capture of Fort Lee Cornwallis' advance averaged over four miles per day.

Sir William Howe had been getting worried by the long lines of communication that Cornwallis was developing. He had now reached a point thirty some miles from New York. And on this first day of December the latter received peremptory orders to advance no farther until he had been reinforced. This gave Washington a clear week without pursuit to cover the thirty miles to the Delaware river, to collect all the boats on the stream in the vicinity, and to ferry across his army which had now dwindled to some 3,000 men. Cornwallis arrived at Trenton on the Delaware on the 8th of December to find the enemy safely across on the other side and though his men ranged for many miles up and down stream they found no available craft on their side. Cornwallis was very anxious to secure or build boats to transport his troops over, both for the immediate pursuit of the enemy and, if possible, to take Philadelphia, the capital city of the rebel forces. However, due to the lateness of the season Sir William Howe vetoed this. And giving up any plans for immediate offensive he stationed 1,000 men in Trenton and another regiment some five miles downstream on the Delaware, and, leaving small garrisons along the lines of communication, for the protection of the Loyalists in the occupied districts, he returned to New York, taking Lord Cornwallis with him and giving the latter leave to return to England.

Early on the morning of December 26th Washington, with a force of 2,500 men, surprised and captured Trenton.

This disaster spurred the British commander-in-chief to action. Regiments were equipped and started out as rapidly as possible, and Cornwallis, his leave cancelled, was put in immediate command. The latter arrived at Princeton, where his troops were assembling, on New Year's night. Washington was then at Trenton, some 13 miles distant.

On the morning of the second, leaving orders that a further 2,000 men not yet ready should follow next day, Cornwallis marched with a force of 8,000. But the woods along the way being held by riflemen, it was late in the day when he reached Trenton. Washington meanwhile had withdrawn across the Assunpink—a small river flowing into the Delaware just south of the town—and he strongly guarded the bridge and the fords. Cornwallis made no serious

attack that night, planning for the next day a flanking movement about the enemy's right to roll his force up against the Delaware.

Washington always maintained, a good Intelligence Service. Consequently, from the forces immediately on his front with Cornwallis he saw clearly not only his own dangerous position, but he knew that could he evade this force Princeton and New Brunswick must be weakly held and so very vulnerable. And so he acted. Detailing small sentry and fatigue parties to somewhat conspicuous duty, he marched by night up the south bank of the stream, and, swinging well clear of the British left, he gained the Princeton road and marched on that town. Just before sunrise he met the troops coming to reinforce Cornwallis and these, surprised and heavily outnumbered, were defeated after about twenty minutes fighting. The Americans then continued their advance on Princeton, which they took without difficulty.

By daylight Cornwallis was aware of the escape of the enemy and then the sound of the guns on the Princeton road indicated the course taken. So he immediately started in pursuit. But the Americans had a very considerable start, they destroyed bridges as they went, and, a very heavy thaw having set in, the roads rapidly became more difficult as the hours passed. As a result Washington was able to evacuate Princeton without being molested. But Cornwallis was so close up that the American general was afraid to attempt the attack on New Brunswick, though he knew there was a very rich military chest at that place. So Washington continued to the north where he occupied a very strong position in the heights of Morristown, Cornwallis marching his force through by night to New Brunswick, a further distance of 18 miles, to assure the safety of that valuable depot.

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WASHINGTON'S position was very strong and Sir William Howe decided against a winter campaign.

In 1777 Sir William Howe planned to take Philadelphia, which was the capital city of the revolutionary forces. Instead of advancing again via Trenton where he had been within about 40 miles of his objective, he spent the early part of the summer in fruitless manoeuvring and then embarking his troops. They were carried by voyage of about 500 miles to the head of Chesapeake Bay, where they debarked still some 30 miles from the city.

Advancing northward to Kennett Square found Washington on the eastern bank of Brandywine creek, six miles distant, fully prepared to dispute his advance.

Brandywine creek is a fairly strong military obstacle and is really a small river, crossed by numerous fords. The principal one Chadd's Ford, lay directly in Howe's line of advance and Washington held this with his centre and his position was strong and well

chosen. Below, this stream becomes a roaring torrent between steep, high cliffs, so his left wing had very strong natural defences and was practically unassailable. Above the ford the American right extended two miles in a very rough and thickly wooded country.

Washington considered that he could hold a frontal offensive, and planned on attacking across the stream if the British forces were divided.

Howe attacked on September 11th. He divided his force into two columns, Von Knyphausen to march at 5 a.m., demonstrate at Chadd's Ford and attack in earnest if and when he found it advisable. Cornwallis to march at 4 a.m. and execute a long flanking movement of some 18 miles, fording the upper forks of the stream and coming down on the American right.

These manoeuvres were so well executed that Washington was not sure of his opponent's plan until the attack was opening on his right wing. And he had not ventured to attack the fairly small force on his front.

For Cornwallis the country was very rough and unexplored, but by 2 p.m. he was in position. He halted his forward battalions, as he approached the American right, until his whole force had closed up, and then, forming in line, he attacked before the enemy was able to complete a new front, and in fierce fighting drove them steadily before him. As his action developed Von Knyphausen recognizing the guns, attacked in earnest across the ford and the American forces retreated. In front of Knyphausen a Virginia regiment marched and ran four miles in 42 minutes to escape capture by Cornwallis' troops. In this engagement the British lost nearly 600 men, the Americans 11 pieces of artillery and over 1,000 men, one-third being prisoners.

There was no further resistance of note to the British advance. Lord Howe occupied Germantown, six miles from Philadelphia, as his headquarters, and on September 26th Lord Cornwallis, at the head of his troops, marched into and occupied the rebel capital.

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THERE was one more engagement that year and Cornwallis figured slightly in it. Howe, still maintaining his headquarters at Germantown, Washington planned a surprise attack on the place with his whole available forces. This was executed on October 4th at the hour of daybreak in a dense fog. One American officer in a private communication stated he had been engaged from first to last about four hours. They encountered an advanced light infantry unit posted two miles out and a regiment one mile out and they advanced into the town. The heavy fighting commenced at the post one mile out. Cornwallis, six miles distant, hearing the guns,

started out at the double with two regiments and was in time to take some part in the action. And he must have had his forces very well in hand to be able to do this.

In the autumn of 1777 Lord Cornwallis sailed on leave, landing in England on January 18th, 1778.

Though on leave he took up his duties in the House of Lords where his knowledge of America was extremely valuable in debates.

In April, when he started to America, Lord Howe had been succeeded by Sir Henry Clinton. He himself now ranked as a Lieutenant-General and was second to the Commander-in Chief. Also he carried a dormant commission to assume command with the rank of General in America 'should any unforeseen accident happen to Sir Henry Clinton'. When he rejoined he found Sir Henry planning the evacuation of Philadelphia. As this meant the abandonment of the territory they had won in Pennsylvania and New Jersey he strongly opposed it and bitter discussions followed. Occupying this city had assured comfortable quarters for the troops for the winter. But in the life of comparative ease they then enjoyed their morale was lowered and discipline was seriously relaxed. This was objected to by Cornwallis and relations became so strained between himself and his chief that he asked to be recalled. This was refused by the home ministry.

The Commander-in-Chief's feelings toward him were possibly further adversely influenced by the presence of the dormant commission.

Sir Henry decided to carry out his plan and Lord Cornwallis was given command of the rearguard. The route taken was across the Delaware, then up its left bank and across country to the neighborhood of Sandy Hook, a crowflight distance of about 75 miles.

Their departure was so well ordered that on June 18th when the inhabitants awakened they were surprised to find the British had left the city. Just after they marched there were 14 hours of very heavy rain, followed by intense heat so that many died of sunstroke. The travelling was bad and they took a week to cover 40 miles. On June 27th when they reached Monmouth Court House the American forces under General Charles Lee (who was second to Washington) were well up and their skirmishers were giving much trouble. The distance to Sandy Hook was approximately 25 miles.

Sir Henry Clinton started moving his baggage train shortly after midnight and Cornwallis moved at 8 a.m. But shortly after the American army came in sight and Sir Henry, deciding it would be necessary to fight, ordered Cornwallis to counter-march his battalions.

Trevelyan, in his history, "The American Revolution", states that "no man alive could set a battle array more artistically and

impressively than Lord Cornwallis". And on this occasion his dispositions were such that Lee was soon in retreat with his whole force. About a league back Washington met his troops, rallied them, and very heavy fighting ensued. The heat was terrific and many men and horses died of sunstroke.

At nightfall the British withdrew and this was a difficult feat as two of their battalions had penetrated deeply into the enemy forces. The armies bivouaced 10 or 12 furlongs apart. Cornwallis was now conducting a retreat. During the night he quietly moved out his battalions without any interference by the enemy and they were not further molested by the American force.

Directly as a result of this action General Lee was not further employed by the Americans.

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IN THE action at Monmouth Court House, Sir Henry Clinton acted with great bravery and decision throughout. He had been urged by a council of war to destroy his baggage train, but he brought it all safely away, with his guns and his colors. And the British Parliament, appreciating this, moved a vote of thanks to him and to Lord Cornwallis for their services.

Receiving news of the serious illness of his wife, Lord Cornwallis resigned his command and landed in England in December, 1778 without any intention of returning to America. Lady Cornwallis died in February, 1779, and in April of that year, at his own request, he was re-appointed to the forces in America where he resumed his previous position as second in command to Sir Henry Clinton.

The situation in America had now materially changed. At the outset of the war the plans had been to crush the rebellious forces. At the end of 1778 Sir Henry Clinton had withdrawn completely from Philadelphia and had his force at his base in New York. But he was planning operations in Georgia and the Carolinas where he understood the feeling was much more favorable to the Crown. It was now hoped apparently to establish firmly the authority of the King in these states and from here carry the war northward. And in that case—should it be still found impossible to subdue the northern areas, these territories at least would be retained as loyal colonies.

Sir Henry Clinton had depatched a small force south which took Savannah early in 1779. On December 26th, 1779 he sailed from New York, taking Lord Cornwallis with him. After a very rough voyage they landed at Savannah. The total troops mustered were about 10,000 men. Planning the subjugation of South Carolina he advanced on Charleston and coming in sight of this city on January 26th, 1780, he commenced its investment. General Lincoln,

the American commander, had fortified the place and attempted to hold it—maintaining communications to the north by means of a cavalry regiment. But on April 13th, Col, Tarleton, the British cavalry commander, cut this force to pieces and on May 12th the city surrendered with nearly 6,000 men.

Col. Tarleton deserves special mention. He was at this time about 26 years of age and apparently a very excellent cavalry officer. His troop was of enlisted patriots from New York and so presented special problems. These men had been driven from their homes by the revolution, and they fought vindictively. Their period of service was not long enough to inculcate discipline thoroughly. As a consequence, though they were splendidly led and were dashing troops, they had a tendency to get out of control in battle and their acts of ferocity much more than counter-balanced the value of their victories. On the voyage they lost most of their horses and it was with great difficulty that Tarleton was able to secure enough marsh ponies to supply his troop. But on April 13th he utterly routed the American cavalry and captured enough good chargers to replace those lost at sea.

On the surrender of Charleston, there was one Virginian regiment left in the state and it attempted to escape to the north. Tarleton set out in pursuit, marched 154 miles in 54 hours, caught them and cut them to pieces. It is stated that his men went absolutely out of hand and for 15 minutes after the surrender gave no quarter. There was left no organized opposition in the state.

Sir Henry Clinton then made proclamation pardoning past offences to those who now took the oath of allegiance. He ordered that all future revolutionaries were to be treated as traitors and their property was to be confiscated, and took steps to organize a loyal militia. He then turned over the command to Lord Cornwallis with instructions to hold Charleston, and maintain order through the state and to carry on military operations as he judged best. Then the day before sailing Sir Henry issued another proclamation requiring all the people of South Carolina to take an active part in re-establishing the royal government under penalty of being dealt with as traitors.

To appreciate the situation obtaining in this state at this time it is necessary to review somewhat.

South Carolina was probably the most flourishing state of all the states, and it, as an agricultural district, had been injured least by the interference of the British parliament in their affairs. The people were prosperous, had been intensely loyal to the mother country, had referred to it as home and had sent their children to schools in England and Scotland. However, in 1776, out of sympathy with the injustices suffered by the states to the north they adopted a temporary independent constitution specifically setting out that this was to obtain only "until an accommodation of the unhappy differences can be obtained."

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APPARENTLY at the first the participation of the population in the war was not very active but it rapidly became so and during the four years during which campaigning was carried on here, 137 engagements were fought within her borders, in 103 of which the British were opposed by South Carolinians exclusively and in 14 by northern "continentals" alone.

The causes of this rise in opposition were several and quite elementary.

Apparently Sir Henry Clinton knew nothing of a policy of conciliation such as Sir Guy Carleton had used in Canada with such outstanding success, and force was used instead. An attempt was made to raise a local militia and to do this officers were sent about the country to take a fresh census. This was of itself an obtrusive irritation. When the militia was formed (a total of 4,000 was raised here), it was of necessity ill-trained and besides was intensely partisan and cruel to its opponents. Some of those who joined and were on more or less detached duty or lawless bands who masqueraded as militia, acted practically as brigands. A policy of confiscation of the property of rebels was pursued, and through this unscrupulous informers worked untold ill for the British cause. Besides it was estimated by American authorities that plate to the value of £300,000 was looted in this State.

In light of these great irritations to the populace it would have been difficult to conceive a more unfortunate official act than this proclamation branding as traitors all those who did not actively support the royal government. It immediately forced into the ranks of the revolutionaries, many who had otherwise remained inactive.

So Lord Cornwallis took over command in the Carolinas with all these disadvantages and the increasing opposition they evoked. His task was stupendous. South Carolina has a total area of 30,989 square miles. It had a rapidly increasing population which six years previously had numbered 175,000, and to hold and control this area, and to conduct further offensive warfare as he saw fit, he was left with a force of less than 5,000 troops.

In South Carolina he held three more important points, Charleston, his base at the coast; Camden, approximately 120 miles northwest, relatively close to the northern boundary and commanding the trade routes into North Carolina; and some 80 miles southwest of this a village known as Ninety-Six which commanded the road to Augusta and Georgia.

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THE security of the British was menaced from the north. Washington despatched troops to North Carolina and these assembled at Hillboro, some 180 miles north of Camden, and came under General Gates who commanded the Americans at Saratoga. Gates

made Camden his objective, and as it was occupied by only a small force he hoped to capture it before reinforcements reached Lord Rawdon, who held this post. He marched on July 27th, but made such slow progress that on August 10th he was still 15 miles from Camden where he encountered Lord Rawdon with his small force. The latter was an efficient officer who also travelled far in his country's service. The next four days were spent in manoeuvring, at the end of which time Gates was within some 10 miles of Camden and had received reinforcements of 700, bringing his force up to 3,052 men. The same day Lord Cornwallis arrived in Camden, his force, combined with Lord Rawdon's, totalling 2,000.

At 10 p.m. on August 15th Gates started to move his force for a surprise attack on Camden. The road was rough, through the woods and flanked by alternating hills and marshes. Lord Cornwallis also marched the same night and when the forces met about 5 a.m. the American advance guard was routed but the main bodies did not then engage. Dawn showed both forces astride the road, facing each other with huge swamps protecting each flank.

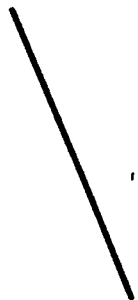
The battle opened with an attack by the Americans on the British right, but they broke their line in advancing. The British came down in a furious charge and within 15 minutes the American left was crumpled up and practically panic stricken. On the other flank the fighting had been furious and much more evenly contested but the British right, wheeling, took the Americans in flank and the battle was soon over. The British lost in killed and wounded, 324; the Americans about 1,000, whilst more than 1,000 prisoners, 2,000 muskets and 7 pieces of artillery fell to the victors. This was the first engagement during the war in which Lord Cornwallis had been in supreme command, and it was the first in the war in which the British attack was pushed absolutely home. Col. Tarleton, with his mounted troops, pursuing the enemy for some 20 miles.

General Gates escaped to Hillsboro where he was able to muster a bare 1,000 men. He was not further employed by the American Congress and was succeeded by General Greene.

About this time Lord Cornwallis gave an order that any revolutionary who had previously borne arms under the crown should be hanged, if captured. This order led to considerable and most regrettable cruelty on both sides and was apparently the cause of much worry and regret to its author, as is evidenced by fairly voluminous correspondence with the American high command on the subject.

The resistance in South Carolina, though not centrally organized, consisted of guerilla bands, under chiefs whose forces directly depended on their prowess and success. And it was a merciless war here—marked by the terrible cruelty of neighbors who had become enemies. Following an attack on Augusta which was repulsed, the defenders hanged 17 wounded who had been abandoned

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by the attackers, and who were construed to come within the scope of Lord Cornwallis' order. And after their victory at King's Mountain the American Loyalists first were reluctant to recognize the surrender and in addition they hanged nine of the prisoners they took.

Washington was sending some reinforcements from the north and supplies for the revolutionaries assembled in North Carolina were constantly coming from Virginia. Lord Cornwallis, foreseeing this, had long urged that a force be sent by Chesapeake Bay into Virginia and after the victory at Camden Sir Henry Clinton sent such a force under General Leslie, whom he made responsible to Lord Cornwallis.

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LORD CORNWALLIS was convinced that the only way to win the war was to prosecute it most actively. So he advanced into North Carolina, and at the same time sending his most successful recruiting officer, Major Ferguson, with a force of 1,200, practically all, if not all, of whom were Loyalists, into the highlands to the west to attempt to raise more troops. These were eventually surrounded on King's Mountain by a force of 3,000 and in the battle on October 17th, 1780 they were utterly crushed. Major Ferguson was killed and only 200 of his force, who were out foraging, escaped. As a result of this action the Loyalist party in the state practically ceased to exist.

This was a terrible blow to Lord Cornwallis. He had advanced to Charlotte (approximately 50 miles north of the border) so he now withdrew about 100 miles to Winnsborough and ordered the Virginian force to proceed by sea to Charleston and join him.

In the first weeks of 1781 Cornwallis had under his command possibly 3,100 men, while opposed to him General Greene had only 2,000 well trained troops, but he co-operated with and helped organize the local guerilla bands. He divided his main force, taking 1,100 himself, with headquarters some 60 miles east of Cornwallis and placing the balance of about 1,000 a similar distance west under General Morgan, a well proven and brilliant leader. Either of these forces, combined with local bands, was easily strong enough to break the British communications either with Augusta or Charleston; and each force was actively raiding.

Lord Cornwallis, ever active, again invaded North Carolina. He took 2,000 men himself and gave 1,100 to Col. Tarleton to deal with Morgan. The latter selected his own ground at a place called the Cowpens and stationed his men on a long rising slope that gave full observation of the enemy's approach. On January 17th, 1781, Tarleton's force arrived at the field about 8 a.m., after an exhausting march in the dark, over a rough and muddy country. They attacked without resting or breakfasting. Successful at first, they were taken in flank by a cavalry charge. Tarleton's Legion again failed to obey orders, and their defeat was absolute, only 270 escaping.

This was a terrible blow to Cornwallis as he had now lost the greater part of his mobile troops. Morgan now retreated into North Carolina with Cornwallis making every effort to catch him. Greene, many miles to the east, hearing of the victory, started his command north, planning a rendezvous with Morgan's force in North Virginia, while he himself rode across country to take personal command of Morgan's troops.

The chase across country to the northeast was most exciting, and Cornwallis sacrificed everything possible to increase his mobility. He destroyed all his heavy baggage. The men carried in their haversacks a small amount of flour which was their only certain food supply. Demanding nothing from his men that he was not prepared to share, he himself reserved no greater comforts than the private soldier.

The season was cold and showery, rain and snow alternating, and the privations must have been terrible. Greene had with his troops enough boats on wheeled vehicles to ferry his men across streams—and on this retreat he crossed four large rivers. Cornwallis had no draught horses to spare for this. After transporting his ammunition, salt and hospital stores, he had only four wagons left and these were reserved for sick and wounded. On January 31st, when Cornwallis forded the Catawba river the water was waist deep and the crossing 500 yards. He had been held up three days by floods, which was providential for General Green's force. The passage of the stream was forced in the night time, and was a surprise to the American troops posted on guard. The fighting was not long, but Cornwallis had his horse killed under him. The pursuit then proceeded as before through rainy weather, but on February 9th Greene united his forces at Guildford Court House—which is approximately 150 miles from Camden.

Greene was now within 70 miles of the Dan river, the northern boundary of the Carolinas, on the north shore of which a fortified position awaited him. By skillful manoeuvring with his cavalry he misled Cornwallis, and was able, on February 14th to safely transport his army across to his prepared position.

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THE statement is made by some writers that Greene enticed Cornwallis far from his base and then fought when even at the cost of a defeat for himself he would cripple the enemy, and that he outgeneralled his opponent all the way. In considering this question and his actions one must remember that Cornwallis was in hot pursuit of Greene's western force and the only way to save it was to retreat and join forces if possible. In spite of the transport for crossing rivers being only available to the Americans, the three days' respite that the flooded Catawba gave them probably was the factor that made their retreat a success. The toil and privations were such that all except about a hundred of Greene's local militia deserted at

this time. This included officers as well as men. Sometimes it snowed, often it rained. There was only one blanket to three men. The troops were often wet to the belts from wading the numerous watercourses. He kept half of his light troops on guard all night and apparently the routine was to march at three a.m. with one meal served per day. It is reported that the news of his safe arrival within his prepared position in Virginia was accepted throughout the States with deep relief and with satisfaction almost as keen as word of victory would have roused. If this was planned in advance the event did not work out with much margin of comfort or safety for his troops.

Lord Cornwallis had failed to attain his objective and his situation was most serious. He was 200 miles from his nearest base of supplies and supporting troops, practically without cavalry and with a force of just over 2,200 men. This was pretty insignificant, especially when one considers that the population of the state was not supporting him, and it has numbered 260,000 at the census of 1774. However he marched to Hillsboro and proclaimed the conquest of the state.

Greene could not afford to leave the British unmolested for any material length of time for fear of Loyalists rallying to them., so having received reinforcements he recrossed the river on February 23rd and after three weeks of manouevring he selected ground at Guildford Court House which lay in a forested country with interspersed cleared areas five to six acres in extent. Here, on March 14th, he set his troops in battle array in three lines, one behind the other at approximately 400 yards apart. He had 4,300 men (Seton says nearly 6,000), but many of them were militia.

Cornwallis was by this time in serious straits. His line of supply was blocked and his stores were exhausted. On March 15th he marched at dawn to attack. The army moved without breakfast as they had no supplies left. Since it was 12 miles to the position occupied by Greene, and there was sharp skirmishing en route,, the men were tired before the battle joined.

Cornwallis had only 2213 men. But they were all dependable. He formed them up in one long row of battalion and without reserves. In such country he could not afford to be outflanked.

At 1.30 p.m. the British swept forward to the attack, easily overcoming the first line, but later the fighting was very desperate. The Guards went through too far, were badly cut up by cavalry and the centre was in very serious danger for some time and there was some falling back. But Cornwallis who had his horse killed under him and who was wounded, rallied his men, threw all available troops into the breach and was able to resume the offensive. About 4 p.m. Greene retreated from the field leaving his cannon to the enemy but his cavalry was so superior that he was able to halt at the end of an hour and then to retire unmolested to a camp 18 miles away.

Cornwallis was in desperate straits. That night the rain fell in torrents. He had lost about 600 men. the American cavalry effectually prevented foraging, and he could not count on food safely by road. Wilmington, his nearest sea base was 200 miles away. His army is stated to have fasted for 48 hours and then got only one quarter-pound of flour and the same of lean beef per man. So he left seventy of his most seriously wounded under a flag of truce and placing the remainder on a line of carts, he retreated to Wilmington, arriving on the 7th of April after a nineteen days' march.

Greene followed for fifty miles and then breaking off the pursuit returned to South Carolina.

The reasons for Cornwallis' retirement to the coast at Wilmington instead of returning to South Carolina and his forces there, are apparently debatable.

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AFTER the battle of Guildford Court House he could consider for a return to Camden the two routes that Gates considered when he marched south. Of these the westerly was described as being longer but leading through a well populated country preponderatingly in favor of the revolution. He had probably traversed part of this route in his pursuit of Greene's force. There are certain factors which render it inadvisable for a force to retrace its steps in an enemy country which it has traversed but not held in force. The danger, of course, increases with the activity of the opposition and Greene's cavalry held such ascendancy that the British foragers could practically not venture beyond their sentry line. The distance would be close to 180 miles. The more easterly road, somewhat shorter, led through a much poorer and more sparsely settled country. It was the route selected by Gates for his advance and he averaged under 11 miles per day when going south. The road to Wilmington led through country untouched by the armies, and at its end, it held hospital facilities for his wounded, supplies for his troops, and the possibility of early reinforcements.

On arriving at the coast he reported to Sir Henry Clinton that he had failed in North Carolina because material assistance was not forthcoming from the local population.

Lord Cornwallis then planned a new campaign and acted without awaiting authorization from Sir Henry Clinton. He had long advocated the advisability of military action through Chesapeake Bay and into Virginia. He probably hoped by this diversion to prevent reinforcements and supplies being sent south, to cut General Greene off from his base in Virginia, and so to ease the strain on the troops he had left in South Carolina. He had found the populace in the Carolinas not giving material support and he had first hand information to some extent of Virginia, in that he had called to himself some time before General Leslie's force from that State. Moreover

there was a new force of at least 3500 men operating in Virginia and with this addition to his forces he felt he might strike a strong blow. So after 18 days in Wilmington, he marched north on the 25th of April and on the 20th of May, after a march of some 200 miles, he effected junction with this force at Petersburg. This gave him some 7000 men. The opposing American army of 3000 was under Lafayette at Richmond (possibly 25 miles distant).

Again we find the force ludicrously inadequate for the work. Virginia with an area of about 43000 square miles had in 1772 a population of 475,000. And Sir Henry Clinton refused to send any reinforcements.

So with his small army Lord Cornwallis set about the winning of Virginia. He advanced on Richmond but Lafayette, always refusing an engagement, manoeuvred his small force skilfully and, though suffering some losses, held his force always as a menace to the British. Tarleton again figured fairly prominently, pushing raids far and riding even to Charlottesville where the state legislature was in session, and where he is stated to have missed capturing its president by a scant 20 minutes. But the force made no genuine success and Royalists did not rise. So Sir Henry Clinton, concluding the Virginia venture to be unprofitable, planned to transfer the force to New York and so about the end of June ordered Cornwallis to fortify and hold one of two posts on Chesapeake Bay as a naval and military base. In accordance with this the position at Yorkton and Gloucester was fortified. This was apparently the better of two places advised but Cornwallis objected to it as inconsequential to the war in the Carolinas and, as he said, "which will only give us some acres of an unhealthy swamp and is ever liable to become a prey to a foreign enemy with a temporary superiority at sea."

And then when Lord Cornwallis had established the post Sir Henry Clinton received an order from the Secretary of State 3000 miles distant, where communication was by sail only, absolutely forbidding the withdrawal of the Virginia force until that state was reduced. Two months later the Secretary cancelled the order but it was too late.

Lafayette's force had grown to over 5000 early in July and he maintained fairly close contact with Cornwallis as he moved down the York peninsula and occupied Yorkton by the 7th August.

The French and Americans had long planned a combined naval and military attack on New York and with this aim materially in view the French government had sent under Admiral de Grassi to the West Indies a fleet carrying 1700 guns and 20,000 men, whilst the utmost available British naval force in American waters was 1400 guns and 13,000 men.

When Cornwallis arrived in Virginia, Washington considered the possibility of concentrating forces and crushing him. And he

wrote to the West Indies offering de Grassi the choice of operating on the Hudson or on Chesapeake Bay. One week after Cornwallis occupied Yorkton Washington received word that the French fleet was sailing for the Chesapeake.

To make the Virginian situation more hopeless for the British troops there, the great Admiral Rodney was ill and in England and the fleet was left in hopelessly weak hands.

On 19th August, 1781, Washington commenced his march from West Point taking 6000 men. He discussed the objective only with General Rochambeau, the commander of the French troops operating with him, and the troops did not know their destination until they reached Philadelphia. On 5th September they reached the head of Chesapeake Bay, where most of the troops embarked—landing near Yorkton on 18th September—the remainder marching all the way.

When the attacking forces were assembled Washington had 16,000 men under his immediate command. His siege artillery consisted of 70 cannon. The seaway was blocked by the French fleet, carrying 1700 guns and 20,000 men.

Cornwallis' force numbered 8,000. He had provisions, if carefully husbanded, for not more than six weeks and his ammunition was insufficient for any long siege. The space enclosed by the earthworks did not exceed 1200 yards by 500 yards. On 17th September he had reported the place as not defensible and added, "If you cannot relieve me very soon you must be prepared to hear the worst".

Five days after the French fleet of 28 ships reached the Chesapeake a squadron of 19 British ships arrived under Admiral Graves. In the ensuing combat, which apparently was not marked by any brilliancy, the British fleet suffered the most, and a few days later the French were reinforced by 8 more battleships. Admiral Graves then sailed for New York, apparently before or about mid-September. And his fleet was not again ready to put to sea until a month later when it was too late to be of service; though Sir Henry Clinton apparently made every endeavor to expedite the refitting and sailing of the ships.

* * *

ON Washington's arrival before Yorkton on 18th September, the investment was completed. Preparations for the siege were rapidly pushed forward, the American and French forces vying with each other and surprising the besieged by the rapidity of their actions. On 9th October their batteries opened with a crushing superiority of fire over the defence, so intense that the garrison withdrew many cannon from their embrasures. And before nightfall the supporting British troops in the river were set on fire by red hot shot and burned. On the evening of the 14th, the French and Americans each stormed an outlying redoubt. This meant that on the 15th they were able to bring their heavy artillery within 300 yards of the ram-

parts and at that distance their guns were able to pour a most devastating fire into every yard of the half square mile into which the garrison was crowded. At this range the wounds were very severe and of 45 Royal Artillerymen injured at their guns 24 were killed outright. The earthworks were crumbling; an eight-inch mortar was all the besieged could reply with and there were only 100 shells left for it. Sickness had put 2000 of the defenders in hospital.

At daybreak on the 16th a sortie by about 400 infantry gained temporary possession of 11 French cannon but as they had no proper spiking irons the French were able again to bring these guns into action. That night Cornwallis made an unsuccessful attempt to carry his troops across the river. Being surrounded by an overwhelming superiority of force, and with no hope in further resistance, the white flag was raised on 17th October, 1781.

In the capitulation agreement Cornwallis felt it incumbent on himself to assure the safety of the Loyalists who were in his force. So it was stipulated that he was permitted to send a ship to advise Sir Henry Clinton of the disaster and what troops he thought proper to send on board were to be allowed to proceed without any questions being asked. Otherwise, he with his army became prisoners of war subject to the ordinary rules of exchange. The formal surrender occurred on 19th October.

Five days later, Sir Henry Clinton arrived in the Chesapeake with 25 ships of the line and 10 frigates carrying 9000 of his best troops.

In England no one blamed Cornwallis and everyone was sorry for him. He was the one high commander who had conducted a consistently aggressive war, winter and summer alike. No suggestion of scandal was heard as to his personal life, of his administration of his troops or their morale. By no contemporary commander, and seldom by any other, had British troops been brought into action in such dashing style and handled throughout engagements with such close and prompt attention to detail as exigencies arose as had been shown at Brandywine and Monmouth Court House and Camden and Guildford Court House. Though he held public confidence and affection through a wonderfully useful public life after this, he was possibly never more respected and loved than when he landed in England in March 1782, a paroled prisoner of war. King George III personally wrote expressing his approbation and confidence.

He was not exchanged but remained on parole to the close of the war and the signing of peace on 14th January, 1784.

His later life was full of responsibility.

He was in May 1782 and June 1784 advised that the ministry would offer him the two posts of Governor General and Commander-in-Chief in India. He refused. In 1785 he was very busy with claims

and compensation by American Loyalists. In 1786 he accepted the combined appointment in India. War occurred with Mysore and the British cause not prospering he assumed post as Commander-in-Chief at the end of 1790. In the second of two campaigns he carried the war to a genuine success. He did not overthrow the usurper. His aim was not conquest but the observance of the existing treaties and the maintenance of peace between the ruling and independent princes. So Tippoo Sahib paid indemnity for his aggressions and sent two of his sons as hostages to the Court of the Viceroy. He himself was wounded in a night attack he was directing and the native princes complained that he exposed himself freely as a grenadier. His share of the prize money amounting to £47,244 he forewent and had divided amongst the troops.

His great work in India was in improving the civil and criminal administration and this work was not completed until 1793, the last year of his regime.

He found the British civic officials in India receiving a small salary with certain added emoluments. This gave great opportunities for extortion and placed a premium on dishonesty in the service. He placed these officials on good but absolutely fixed salaries.

His administrative changes ushered in a much improved era in the country. "The Cornwallis Code whether for revenue police, criminal and civil justice or other functions, defined and set bounds to authority and founded the Civil Service of India as it exists today." This code has been the basis of every attempt to introduce law and order into each successive acquisition of territory. It had certain defects and could not absolutely with advantage apply to all the different types of peoples from the mountains to the plains. But it was dictated by an earnest desire to conciliate Hindus and Moham-medans, to avoid offence to religious or social customs and to substitute order for the previous anarchy and chaos.

Within four months of his return from India he was employed smoothing out the difficulties between the allied commanders then operating against France returning home in the middle of 1784.

He was constantly in correspondence with India and in 1797 was commissioned to return to that country for a year to settle some grave difficulties that had arisen in the army there but due to a meeting at Portsmouth he gave up the appointment.

* * *

MEANWHILE things had been going badly in Ireland, though this country had been granted an independent parliament in 1782, a strong separatist movement took place and the extreme religious antagonism accentuated the difficulty. Pourparlers had taken place with the aim of getting aid from the new French republic and on 23rd May 1798 rebellion broke out according to preconcerted

plans. The situation appeared so grave to the English ministry that the functions of Lord Lieutenant and of Commander-in-Chief were combined in one and Lord Cornwallis was finally persuaded to accept the appointment. He landed in Ireland on 20th June. The main strength of the rebellion was by then broken and the terrible cruelties and excesses of the rebels were replaced by those of the Government soldiers. Cornwallis strove for a policy of clemency to the great mass of the rebellious. Both sides had a great tendency to being pitiless when in control and he met very strong opposition. But in July he introduced bills in both British Houses which, with certain exceptions, in case of the principal leaders granted amnesty to all the rebels and these carried.

Tranquillity had been barely secured when a force of 1100 French under General Humbert landed at Killala Bay on 22nd August and distributed 5000 stand of arms to Irish who joined with him. This force defeated one of the Irish militia sent against them. Lord Cornwallis then took command. The Irish did not rally to the invaders as the French had hoped and on 8th September Cornwallis forced their surrender at Ballynamuck.

In view of the bitter antagonisms between the different religious parties in Ireland and the unscrupulous use of power made by either side when in the ascendancy—Lord Cornwallis first urged the placing of Roman Catholics on a complete equality with Protestants and secondly supported Pitt's scheme for the union of the Irish Parliament with the English, hoping in this way to prevent tyranny by the majority over the religious minority. In the carrying through of this measure, what we in this day would characterize as most shameless bribery was carried on. Lord Cornwallis objected against this strongly but ineffectually. The Act of Union came into force 1st January 1801.

In 1799 he received an unique tribute from the forces in India. War had broken out again with Mysore which ended with its subjugation and the capture of Seringapatam its capital in that year. Following this the army addressed to him a note and tokens of appreciation. They had not forgotten the Commander-in-Chief who had campaigned with them in 1791. *

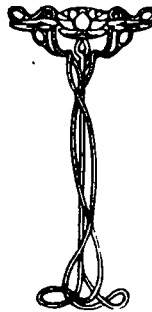
In May 1801, on completing his tenure in Ireland, he was given command of a military district in England. On 3rd November he sailed for France, charged with the duty of carrying on negotiations with Bonaparte. This culminated in the signing of the Treaty of Amiens on 25th March 1802.

He now had some rest from public duties but events had moved rapidly in India and very great difficulties again confronted the administration. Though very definitely in failing health, in the Spring of 1805 he again accepted office as Governor-General of that country. He landed at Calcutta on 29th July and assumed office next day. Hill stations for summer for the officials were not then thought of and he

took over in the hottest season. His health continued to decline but he worked steadily and his death occurred on 5th October of that year whilst on a journey to the Upper Provinces.

He is buried at Chazipur, the place of his death, and a mausoleum to his memory is erected there; monuments being erected in Bombay, in Calcutta and in Westminster Abbey.

In reviewing his life histories, I find no suggestion of taint in his character or honour and none of neglect in his assiduous devotion to duty. The great impelling motive in his life was apparently outlined in a letter written to his son when on his way to India, on being notified of one of the higher orders in the gift of the Sovereign having been conferred on him. In this regard he said he neither asked for nor wished it. No one knew whether such men as Hampden or Marlborough or Wolfe had ever been so decorated, but they were remembered by a grateful posterity for the work they had done for their people and country. Surely the memory of Lord Cornwallis, sometime Second-in-Command of the Forces in America, Commander-in-Chief of the Forces in The Carolinas, Commander-in-Chief and Governor-General of India, Commander-in-Chief and Lieutenant-Governor of Ireland, Minister Plenipotentiary concluding the Peace of Amiens, and again Commander-in-Chief and Governor-General of India, should be so cherished.



When General Currie Visited Calgary



PHOTO BY W. J. OLIVER

General Sir Arthur Currie and Lieut.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C., Chief Constable of Calgary, who was one of the reception committee to greet the former Canadian Corps Commander when he visited Calgary.

The Institute lost a firm supporter and staunch friend by the death of General Sir Arthur Currie, G.C.M.G., K.C.B., LL.D., in 1933, at Montreal.

The late General Currie, in addition to his very many activities, found time to guide the destinies to a great extent of the returned soldier, in whose behalf he was constantly working in his capacity as Grand President of the Canadian Legion of the British Empire Service League.

General Sir Arthur Currie was the guest of the Institute on more than one occasion and during these visits expressed himself as particularly pleased to note that officers and ex-officers of His Majesty's Sea, Land and Air Forces and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police still saw fit to meet together and keep in touch with matters military.

During one of his visits to the Institute, on Sept. 2nd, 1922, although in the city for only a few hours, General Currie met the members of the Institute at the tea hour and informally chatted with those present. At that time he briefly addressed the gathering on the problems met by the soldier on re-entering civil life.

The St. Lawrence Waterway and Power Project

By Lieut.-Col. P. Earnshaw, D.S.O., M.C., R.C.S.

CANADA has been building canals and improving waterways for over 100 years. The further improvement of the St. Lawrence for navigation and power has been a subject of discussion more or less active all this century. But it is since the war, that the question has become an international one of very real interest. It is one on which I feel every thinking citizen should inform himself and be sure the Government of the day knows his opinions. It is a far bigger question than just the spending of a couple of hundred million dollars of the country's money.

First, a few words about the canals as they are and some that are, or were, proposed.

Round the rapids on the St. Lawrence between Prescott and Montreal, there are 46 miles of canal with a minimum lock dimension 270 feet by 45 feet with 14 feet draft.

In the same region, the Rideau Canal from Kingston to Ottawa It is 6 foot draft and was completed early last century as a military venture. It has no commercial value now, though still maintained

Third, the Old and New Welland Canals. The old one passed ships of 14 foot draft and was used in connection with the locks on the Upper St. Lawrence. The new canal was only opened in 1932 at a cost of about \$150,000,000. It has a clearance over the sills of 30 feet and in the reaches of 25 feet. It allows the upper lake grain ships now to go as far down as the foot of Lake Ontario. The New Welland Canal, of course, enters very materially into the St. Lawrence project.

Fourthly, there are the locks at Sault Ste. Marie, both Canadian and American, and the improvements of the St. Mary's river. These, while larger than the Old Welland, are not up to the size of the proposed St. Lawrence locks, or New Welland. They too have their place in the considerations surrounding the St. Lawrence project.

Starting back on the American side there is the Chicago Drainage Canal and the Mississippi 9 foot barge canal. The drainage canal, with its stealing of the water over 10,000 feet second from the Great Lakes basin in contravention of the treaties, is a question familiar to you all and one which the ratifying of present treaty on the St. Lawrence project would make most difficult, if not impossible to settle on an equitable basis to Canada.

There is the proposed Oswego Canal which is put up as a lever by certain factions in the United States to make Canada toe the line. The estimated cost is 450 millions. It would, of course, take advantage of the treaties by which the U.S. has full rights of usage of the New Welland Canal on an equal status with Canada. It would take 15 years to build and would divert traffic via Lake Ontario to the Hudson river and New York.

There is the suggested canal down to Lake Champlain from Lake St Francis, which would have a draft of 27 feet, but being below the project in question hardly enters the discussion, except that it would develop power in the international section and divert traffic to New York by a cheaper route than Oswego and would cut out Montreal as a transshipping point.

Lastly, there is the proposed route of the Georgian Bay Canal. It still has its adherents, who consider it a better plan than the St. Lawrence. The estimated cost some time since was about 460 millions. Its navigable season would be 210 days, or 15 days less than the St. Lawrence. It might have a water shortage and would, owing to curves, be slow but 300 miles shorter than the St. Lawrence.

Let me apparently disgress a moment to draw your attention to the Hudson's Bay Railway route from Saskatchewan and Manitoba to Europe, by comparison with the Great Lakes route. Note also the rail haul from Alberta and B.C. to Vancouver or Prince Rupert. And lastly, let me indicate what are known as the Middle Western States. They are, in effect, a country of some 50,000,000 population, who must have an outlet to the Atlantic.

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THE project visualizes creating a channel of 27 foot draft from the head of the Great Lakes to tidewater, and at the same time to develop some five million horse power on the Upper St. Lawrence. It is estimated it would take from seven to ten years to complete and would cost all told about one billion dollars (which includes work already done.

Starting at the head of the Great Lakes and working eastward, there would be a great deal of work to be done in deepening harbours and channels, present "Soo" facilities to be improved to 27 foot draft, (work is now being done to 24 feet). 33 million has already been spent by the U. S. and Canada at the "Soo". The Welland Canal, of course, is a completed link in the chain. It has cost 150 million and provision is made to increase 5 feet on sills if required. The U. S. spent considerable sums in the St. Clair river, Huron rapids and Detroit river. The treaty visualizes giving each country credit for expenditure already made.

The great proportion of the work would be in the international section from Prescott to Cornwall and in the Canadian section east of it.

From an engineering point of view, the scheme has been thoroughly investigated several times, one of which was by a joint engineering board composed of engineers from Canada and the U.S. Technically the scheme is sound and feasible, with no really big engineering difficulties. The main points of the physical part of the scheme are, in brief, as follows:

International Section.

A dam and lock at Crysler Island (600,000 h.p.)

A dam and lock at Barnhart Island (1,400,000 h.p.)

In this way to drown out the rapids and at the same time create the heads for development of power.

The power would be equally divided. This would involve the buying out of a great deal of property which would be drowned out.

National Section.

Locks and dam at the Beauharnois Company's location near Valleyfield. This now done as far as power is concerned (2,000,000 h.p.)

Lachine canal and locks with power dam (1,000,000 h.p.)

This section has in it Lake St. Francis and Lake St. Louis.

Arguments for and against the scheme have been fairly heated during the last generation, both in the U. S. and Canada. The questions involved are numerous, interesting and diverse.

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THE Middle Western States, grouped about the Great Lakes, have a population of nearly 50,000,000. They are, perhaps, the greatest users of transportation in the world. It is from this industrial, agricultural and iron mining area that the loud and insistent cry came for the St. Lawrence route to the sea.

Just after the U. S. entered the war, and for some time after the war, the railway facilities from this huge inland population to the Atlantic seaboard were very inadequate, and it appeared as if conditions must get worse.

It was estimated that two billion dollars would be required to make railway facilities adequate, whereas 272 million dollars would be the U.S. share in providing the St. Lawrence route and it would give cheaper transportation costs. The ratio of 2,000 to 272 was a strong talking point. The large inland ports like Chicago, Milwaukee, Cleveland, Detroit, Duluth, Hamilton and Toronto saw themselves as ocean ports, growing in importance, due to the cheap transportation for the ore from Missabe, for coal from Pennsylvania, and for wheat; also for canned goods from Chicago, for automobiles from Detroit, etc.

The Great Lakes are without doubt a dominating factor in the economic structure of both the U. S. and Canada. A whole series of ports on the Lakes deal with tonnage of shipping now only equalled by a few well-known world ocean ports. They said, "Think what will happen when ocean boats can come into our ports." Twenty per cent. of the U.S. tonnage is on the Great Lakes. Four and one-half per cent. of the world tonnage is there on an area half the size of the Black Sea. The annual tonnage through the locks, both U. S. and Canada, at Sault Ste. Marie, is 9½ millions as compared with 31 millions, the largest through the Panama.

These enthusiasts lost sight of the fact that the Middle Western States have less wheat every year for export, and soon will have none. That ocean tramps could not compete on the Lakes on economical terms, and would probably only enter the Lakes in small numbers. Ocean boats are built for heavy seas, and have a much smaller capacity for their draft than have lake freighters, which are built for sheltered waters and for very quick loading and unloading to make the quickest possible turn round in order to make the most of a short season.

They did not realize that their railways to the Atlantic might become more efficient. They now handle all the traffic and have spare capacity; and that without resorting to that gigantic expenditure of two billions as at first visualized.

The Far East trade has increased and diverted much traffic Westward. This may increase. However, there are still strong interests who shout loudly for a subsidized waterway to provide them individually with cheaper freight rates.

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CANADA did not get so hysterical about it all, except perhaps some parts of Ontario. The Panama opened and Vancouver as a grain and timber port has made tremendous strides. The Far East markets are growing and the H. B. Railway opened and shortened the haul from Regina to Europe by 650 miles over the Great Lakes route. The economic line for grain moving East or West to the sea is now about Moose Jaw.

Canada realizes that she has more railways than she has traffic for and that the growth of population that seemed to have set in by immigration just prior to the war has stopped. Possible relief for the railways in the way of other traffic facilities is no longer necessary—in fact just the reverse.

The new waterway would cut freight costs to the individual by about four cents a bushel, but only at the cost of the taxpayer paying the balance in the form of carrying charges for capital outlay. There would then be the extraordinary position of the taxpayer subsidizing transport by the St. Lawrence, and taking away

much needed freight from their own National Railway; which is not reasonable, unless the new waterway would so increase general prosperity as to more than balance. The taxpayer would, it is stated, be contributing about \$3.50 per ton for the benefit of such shippers who used the route.

There is another point which is not often considered, and that is that about 60 per cent. of the traffic on the route would be wheat, and yet according to computations of growing population vs. increased wheat acreage, it would seem that in the not very distant future U.S. wheat exports will disappear, and Canada will be exporting south. Or in effect, North America's export will become less and less and will eventually cease in, say, 40 years.

That, coupled with the growing present tendency to move a portion of the crop West and a portion via Hudson's Bay, seems to say that from Canada's point of view the new route is not necessary. It would take ten years to build, with the wheat export dropping all the time. Eastern storage facilities would go up, which would eventually become useless.

There is yet another question, and that is there is a growing tendency with controlled marketing, (wheat pools, etc.), to put wheat on the market later. This means that with the short navigation season for wheat, September to November, much would in any case go by rail.

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NOW FROM the power point of view.

Some say that power is really at the bottom of the U.S. desire to proceed with the project.

The idea for hydro-electric power development is great volume, coupled with permanence of flow. Therefore we must have an almost ideal condition in this scheme. Records exist over 66 years which show an extraordinarily small variation, and that without artificial regulation.

The New England States are at present ill supplied with cheap power, and are finding it a great handicap. They and the New York metropolitan area are well within the distribution radius. Power distribution at high voltage is now almost 100 per cent. efficient. The parts of the U. S. which are against the project from a navigation viewpoint are most eager for the electric power.

Ontario and Quebec are at present supplied with cheap power and each has untouched resources besides the St. Lawrence to meet requirements for years.

I want to draw your attention to something which you may not fully realize, and that is that if Canada exports power she has de-

veloped but cannot use, she can never hope to get it back again, no matter how the contract may be made.

If power is sold in the U.S., industry and vested interests grow up around it, which become so powerful that the power cannot be cut off without international incidents, which naturally are to be avoided.

The U. S. is naturally very keen for us to allow development of power we cannot use. Power can only be exported from Canada by permit. Another legal point is the position in Quebec. Quebec has peculiar and exceptional privileges dating back to the old French Crown and seignorial rights. She claims all power rights within the Province and will not waive. She objects to power export; and the reason is not far to seek, as around power industrial development grows. Canada would be well advised to have that growth in Canada, rather than across the border.

Another point which may favour early commencement of the scheme is that Ontario and Quebec have no coal deposits of any account and coal from the Maritimes, the U. S. and Alberta has to be shipped in. There we find both the densest population, the present manufacturing centre of Canada and also large and convenient water power.

It may be of interest in passing to know that in Canada as a whole, the per capita consumption of electric energy is almost exactly double that of the U. S., notwithstanding the greater industrial demand on the U. S. side of the border. Ontario and Quebec use more per capita than the rest of Canada and again almost double the figure for the New York State.

If Canada goes ahead with the huge development on the international section she will have to depend for disposal of power on industrial development near the river, at a high load factor. In fact, American and Canadian power will be competing for electro-chemical and electro-metallurgical and other industrial development along the river.

The development of power at the same time as development of navigation facilities is almost necessary in order that the costs of each part will be shared with the other.

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TO SUMMARIZE the points I have attempted to make:—

- (a) The project, from an engineering point of view, is an immense undertaking, but has no unsurmountable difficulties. The whole scheme, including work already done, would add up to a total expenditure for navigation and power of some 1,000 millions. The cost of work still to be done would

be 272½ millions for U.S. and 121 millions for Canada, (which takes account of expenditure on the New Welland Canal).

The total power available is about 5,000,000 h.p., of which 1,000,000 to U.S. and 1,000,000 would go to Canada on the international section 2,000,000 at Beauharnois, and 1,000,000 just above Montreal, at Lachine.

There would be a 27 foot channel from Montreal to the head of the Great Lakes. It would take some ten years to complete.

- (b) Conditions in the U. S. and Canada have changed greatly, comparing conditions before the war, during and immediately after the war and now. Greater traffic facilities seemed urgent to both countries, power being of little interest to either. Whereas now traffic facilities are not urgent to the U.S. and certainly not needed in Canada with its present railway problem. Power is now an urgent question in the U.S. and still not a pressing one in Canada. The future will see wheat traffic change in destination, season of shipping and in volume, and will make the power development urgent in the U. S. and desirable in Canada.

My conclusion is that under present conditions Canada does not need the project. From a navigation point of view vis-a-vis the railways it is definitely undesirable. From a power point of view Canada can well afford to wait for some years.

Of course the full value of the expenditure on the Welland Canal cannot be realized till the project is completed. Canada's yearly deficit on the Welland Canal will amount to about eight millions, whereas the deficit would probably be cut to two millions if the project was completed, assuming tolls on navigation and sale of power.

There is, of course, the argument that employment would be aided just now when this is an urgent matter, and also there is very weighty opinion that development for power and the subsidizing of navigation would attract industry and promote generally the prosperity of the country sufficiently to warrant the project as an immediate undertaking.

To the United States the project from both a navigation and particularly a power point of view is most desirable at once, not to mention the employment provided.

Canada I think, for once, has the handle of the whip in this treaty, and should take every advantage of it.

Reflections on India

By Capt. M. G. Dover

THE SEASON for a pleasant visit to the plains of India and Burma lies between November 15th and the end of March. In the Punjab, northern portion of India, these dates can be slightly extended; but in October and April the heat is apt to be severe in the Red Sea and at the ports of arrival and departure.

Up to the 15th of October and after the 10th of April the weather at the ports may be almost as trying as any in the year, much more so than in July, August and September, when constant rain cools the atmosphere.

Among the difficulties which have disappeared of late years is that of the language. English is now spoken at all hotels and railway stations—in the post and telegraph offices and in the leading shops in all large places attendants are on hand who speak English.

The same facilities usually exist in shops for the sale of works and Indian art and manufacture which travellers are likely to visit; and local guides with a knowledge of English—more or less—are available at all important centres. Visitors will also find that a great many of the educated Indians whom they will meet speak the language exceedingly well. A courteous request for information will almost invariably meet with a willing response.

The use of motor cars is now general in India, Burma and Ceylon and the roads in all large places and the main roads connecting these will ordinarily be found good.

Visitors to India must remember that while the midday is always warm, sometimes very hot, the evening dews may be so heavy as to wet the outer garments. Also, the cold of the nights and mornings is often very sharp so that the secret of dressing is to begin the days in things that can be thrown off as the heat increases and resumed as the cold returns.

In some places in the North of India in the winter months, the temperature will fall between 40 and 50 degrees within the two hours on either side of the sunset and the risks of serious chills in consequence of such sudden change are very great if due care is not taken to meet them. It has often been said that more illness is contracted from chills in India than from the heat.

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than abroad and a local tailor will copy an old suit in a most satisfactory manner—including any patches.

Every traveller who contemplates a tour must, on arrival in India, protect himself with some bedding to be taken with him everywhere; it should always be with him in the railway train if he is going to spend the night on the train, which in Northern India may sometimes be bitterly cold. The minimum equipment is a pillow and two cotton wadded quilts and a couple of good blankets. These can be packed conveniently in the ordinary holdall. Soap and towels should also be added to this equipment.

A travelling servant who can speak English is almost indispensable but should not be engaged except through friends resident in India or on recommendation of a trustworthy agent.

* * * * *

INDIA is served by several exceptionally well equipped and operated railway systems. The railway companies in India do much for the comfort of all classes of travellers.

In the first and second-class compartments, the seats, which are usually deep, are so arranged as to form couches at night but bedding and pillows are not provided.

There are refreshment rooms at frequent intervals and some of these are well managed and supplied with appetizing food.

The station masters are particularly civil—usually Indians.

Corridor trains are practically unknown on account of this type of railway carriage lending itself to theft and pillage.

Hotel accommodation has undoubtedly improved during the past few years. A famous war correspondent wrote that "A hotel in India up-country is a place where you can get everything that you bring with you and nothing else except a bed and soda water."

There are first-class hotels in Northern India at such places as Delhi, Lucknow, Agra, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Peshawar, and Calcutta boasts of two exceptionally fine hotels—but speaking generally, there are hardly any hotels in India which come up to European standards outside the three presidency towns, the chief hill stations and certain exceptional places.

At the Dak bungalows (Traveller's Rest Houses), established by the government at all important places the keeper in charge (commonly called the Khansama) will provide meals but it is well to give notice of intended arrival.

The bedrooms in these bungalows have an adjoining bathroom consisting of a large metal tub and the necessary wash basin, etc. The rooms are roughly provided with crude furniture and lights.

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THE traveller will, of course, realize that he must not expect the quality of meat, fowls and eggs always to be up to the standard of more temperate climates.

The sea fish is good and the river fish excellent and generally fresh.

In the cities, fresh meat is available after being slaughtered the night before and is in the bazaar for purchase early the following morning .

Cold storage plants are practically unknown in India but with cold storage facilities available on many of the visiting steamers, it is now possible to secure imported meats, fruits and delicacies at intervals.

Fowl is generally brought to the bungalow alive and killed when required. It is a common sight to see the bird tied to the leg of a stove in the kitchen waiting until the cook decides to make it ready for the pot.

Game is generally abundant in the cold weather—quail, snipe, teal, duck and partridge.

It is a necessary precaution always to boil the water and milk before using. Aerated water should be drunk in preference to plain water, particularly when up-country.

The Indian secures his drinking water from wells, or large open pools of water, known as tanks. It is a common sight to see these pools covered with a thick, green slime, bullocks bathing in them and **always** the household washing being done in the same pool. The Indian is evidently immune from disease whereas the European is not.

It is impossible to travel from Bombay to Calcutta or Delhi—Madras—without passing in each case, through hundreds of miles of territory governed by its own rulers and lies, strictly speaking, outside of British India.

Of the 675 states in India, 73 have rulers who are entitled to a salute of 11 guns and more and are referred to as "His Highness". The two largest states are Hyderabad in the south, with an area of 82,698 square miles and Jammy and Kashmir, in the north, with an area of 80,000 square miles.

So long as a British subject, travelling through a native state, keeps to the Grand Trunk Road or to the railway station platform he is under the protection of the British. If he steps off either he comes under the law of the state.

* * * * *

THE supreme authority in India, subject to the Secretary of State, is vested in the Viceroy and Governor-General and his Council of six ordinary Members and one Extraordinary Member, the Commander-in-Chief—who forms the Government of India. These seven Members are in charge of Home, Industries, Labor, Finance, Railways and Commerce, Education, Health and Lands, Law and Army departments. At the head of each of these departments and of the Foreign and Political departments, is a secretary to the Government of India.

The headquarters of the Government of India are Delhi in winter and Simla in summer.

The army is under the control of the Commander-in-Chief but under the direct orders of four Army Commanders, who are in charge of four areas, the Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western commands, into which India is divided. Under the Army Commanders, there are 14 Military Districts.

For purpose of civil administration, British India is divided into a number of Provinces, nine in number, comprising: Bombay, Bengal, Madras, Bihar and Orissa, United Provinces, Central Provinces, Punjab, Assam and Burma.

The heads of minor administrations, which are more directly under control of the Government of India, are known as Chief Commissioners.

At the head of the Government of each of these nine Provinces is a Governor.

* * * * *

RAILWAY progress in India is a mirror of its financial history. In 1872 the mileage was 5,369. At the end of 1927 it was 39,049. This mileage is considerably larger than that of France. The total number of passengers carried in that year was 604 million people, of which 578 million were third class passengers.

The control of railways and railway schemes is exercised by a railway board which, as now constituted, consists of a chief commissioner, a financial commissioner and two members, one of whom deals with technical subjects and the other with general administration, personnel and traffic.

THE history of irrigation in India stretches back into antiquity, many of the modern works being founded upon ancient works which have been restored and extended. The storage of water in tanks is very common in South India. This stagnant water results in breeding of mosquitos and as a consequence, malaria fever. One of the largest irrigation works so far executed in India is the Triple Canal project, completed in 1917, by means of which the surplus waters of the Jhelum are transferred to the Lower Bari Doab. The three canals, Upper Chenab, Lower Bari Doab and the Upper Jhelum, irrigate altogether 203 millions of acres, and the Upper Chenab is the largest perennial irrigation canal in the world. A huge extent of waste land has been brought into cultivation.

Other great irrigation projects have been inaugurated or are in hand, such as the Sarda scheme in Oudh, the Sukkur Barage in Sind, the Nira canals in the Bombay Presidency and the Sutlej Valley project in the Punjab.

The Kolar gold fields are situated in the southern part of India—in Mysore state. The gold field begins eight miles from Bowringpet and extends for several miles, presenting a very busy appearance with its numerous tall chimneys, mills, shaft heads, buildings and bungalows of all kinds. There are five companies at work in the field, employing nearly 22,000 people. Nearly £658,000 are paid yearly in wages. Since mining on modern principles was begun in the field in 1882, the mines have yielded gold to the value of over 62½ millions sterling and have paid royalties amounting to over 3¼ millions. In 1926 the production was 382,899 oz. of fine gold to the value of £1,618,629.

The Yenangyoung oil field, on the Irrawady, in Burma, is a veritable forest of some 8,000 derricks and is situated some three miles from the river bank. Oil winning by primitive Burmese methods is still practised but in recent years several companies, the largest being the Burmah Oil Company, have acquired sites in the field and by adopting the American system of wells, drilled to a depth of over 3150 feet, have obtained an enormously increased production.

The annual output of oil is between 250 and 270 millions of gallons.

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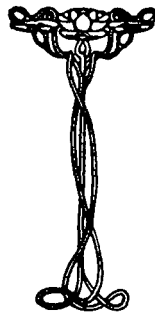
ASSAM is the centre of the Indian tea industry. Eighty-five per cent. of the total area under tea in India lies in the Brahmaputra and Surma Valleys and in the Bengal districts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri. The actual acreage for Assam under tea is 420,600, out of an aggregate for the whole of India of 739,700, and 194,700 for the other two districts. Of the remainder, fourteen per cent. or 105,738 acres, is in Southern India.

There were, a few years ago, 941 gardens in the Province of Assam with an out-turn of nearly 242 million pounds of manufactured tea.

The permanent labour force is approximately 470,000.

The total exports of tea from India by sea in 1826-27—one of the most productive years—was 350 million pounds. The largest purchaser was Great Britain with 292 million pounds, but a considerable portion of this is re-exported. Direct exports from India to the United States accounted for 8 million pounds. Canada took 11½ million pounds, and Australia 9 millions

Other products of India consist of wheat, rice, cotton, millet, tobacco, opium, sugar cane, tea, coffee, rubber, ground nuts, coconuts, jute, oil seeds, coal, oil, gold, silver, lead and precious stones



Among the Recent Books

By Major C. A. Lyndon.

"The Future of Infantry".—Capt. B. H. Liddell Hart. (London: Faber & Faber). All arms of the service will enjoy this little dissertation from one of our foremost military writers. Captain Liddell Hart has combined a commendable story of the foot-soldier from the days of the early phalanx with an equally praiseworthy analysis of the lessons that story demonstrates.

Infantry has passed through a series of recurrent evolutions in constitution and armament since the day when the Greeks set up their solid phalanx and waited in patience for the attackers to throw themselves upon it—which they invariably did. This was the original 'bulk-soldier'. It was Epaminondas the Theban who discovered that the weakness of the phalanx lay in its inflexibility, and he ushered in the development of a lighter, more flexible force which could move quickly to take advantage of a vulnerable point. These two types of foot-soldiers alternating in their ascendancy have constituted the history of our 'P.B.I.'. As Liddell Hart points out, it has, without exception, been the overdevelopment of first the heavy infantryman, then the light soldier, that has led to the modern type of army, just as during the last war the static lines of trench warfare induced the German Command to hearken back to the heritage left to British arms by Sir John Moore in his light infantry division, and once more to revive the light, mobile infantryman to carry out its infiltration tactics.

The success of these changes back to the mobile unit and the stalemate which accompanied the heavier, bulk infantry unit in the late conflict has directed the author of this little volume to consider the question of what form infantry should now assume. His conclusions form a picture of a new and rather intriguing form of 'gravel-crusher'—a battalion of skirmishers clothed in felt hats, Tyrolean cloaks, plus-fours (all aiming at the essential freedom of movement) and armed with a lighter weight rifle. The advance companies are to be transported to the scene of action in tracked vehicles; these are supported by mechanized machine-guns and heavier armament, and to have a reserve company which can be rushed forward in busses of the track-type. Captain Hart has gone to considerable length to show what this new force will look like in action, and his contentions will cause considerable discussion among the arms.

* * * *

"Generalship—Its Diseases and Cure." — Major-Gen. J. F. C. Fuller. (London: Faber & Faber). Thank heaven it was a general

who wrote this concise precis about generals and generalship! Any one junior in the chain of command would have been accused of unethical 'sniping' had he so maligned the present status of our army leadership—whereas General Fuller commands a considerable measure of support for his contentions.

Every junior officer ought to read this book—I presume our seniors will read it to learn what is considered wrong with their rank. It is recommended particularly to juniors because it sets forth the requisites, not of generalship alone but of leadership in general, essentials labelled by General Fuller as "courage, creative intelligence and physical fitness".

The author develops his theory that British generalship has deteriorated since the days of Inkerman, Corunna and Quatre Bras by comparing the actions, and the ages, of our generals in those earlier actions, with their counterparts at Suvla, Ypres and Paaschendale, and in the disastrous retreat in March, 1918. Strive as one may to point out that modern armies no longer permit the same close contact of a general with his force, it does seem that had generalship developed at the same pace we might still have had army commanders who were flesh and blood to their troops rather than the present unseen and much maligned tactical directors. General Fuller suggests one or two rather drastic alterations to our present staffs and to senior officer training which should be a move toward shortening the gap between divisional and corps headquarters and the man in action.

* * * *

"Napoleon and His Marshals."—A. G. Macdonell. (Toronto: MacMillan's).—The safest venture is that a goodly number of those who read this volume will re-read a considerable portion of it, as much because of its superb readability as because of the difficulty in spots of keeping the many Napoleonic marshals properly aligned with their many titles to dukedoms and kingdoms. Mr. Macdonell has furnished a new approach to the Napoleonic legend—for while the First Consul still dominates every picture of the drama, we are here treated to a little more realistic perspective of the part played by his army commanders. The names of Ney, Massena, Lannes, Bernadotte, Murat, Berthier and a dozen compatriots now share the stage, probably taking a more equitable portion of the plaudits (and anon of the reproof) than heretofore. Bonaparte remains the strategist par excellence, but time upon time as the fortunes of the Grande Armée wane, do the skill, dash and loyalty of the Neys and Davouts furnish the touch that rekindles the glory of the Empire.

The story of the marshals covers the panorama of the Little Corsican's campaigns, Italy, the Alps, Egypt, the Peninsula, Austria and Russia. The marshals themselves, in some number—as Massena tersely remarked when congratulated upon being listed in the appointments, "yes, one of fourteen"—while chosen because they had become Symbols of Victory to the Armies of France, are become

through Mr. Macdonell the humans they were, with both their sterling qualities and their jealousies, bickerings and peculiar shortcomings, and we find them at times as ready to take issue with Napoleon as to support him. Only one of all the elect seemed to be beyond the weakness of despair, the brilliant Ney, who remained brilliant even in his tragic task of covering the retreat from Moscow, though he could not condone the failure of his commander to throw the Old Guard into the fray to rout the broken Russians before Moscow.

The Napoleonic period saw the rise and fall of some of the greatest leaders of all time and the author of this tale of the Napoleonic marshals has grandly demonstrated the manner in which his subjects mirrored the spirit of the Age.

* * * *

"Tank Warfare."—F. Mitchell, M.C. (Toronto: Thos. Nelson).—This author designated his book (a story of the conception, development and success of the Tank Corps) a book for 'boys of all ages', which is just what it turns out to be—readable and enthralling enough for the younger men and authoritative enough for those of us who are more deeply interested in this weapon which came out of the late war.

Tracing the bickerings, misgivings and procrastination which accompanied the original conception of these armored gun carriers, he leads in turn to the heroic and dramatic first appearance of Tanks in action. It appears it was a sudden decision of the High Command to fall back upon Tanks, yet untried, to pull the Somme 'show' out of the mud in which it was fast sinking on the eventful fifteenth, where due to their lack of numbers they were able to do no more than secure local ascendancies. The next big effort was at the Salient in late summer of '16, where Tank critics had their innings as the huge hulks slid off the roadways into bottomless mud and were abandoned. The comeback, though, was dramatic as the first appearance, as at Cambrai in the following spring a force of four hundred tanks all but wrecked the Hindenburg line. The succeeding story relates the periods of development of this arm on both sides of the fray and makes an interesting tale.

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"Death in the Air."—Diary of an Air Corps Officer. (London: Heinemann).—This diary, with its scores of realistic airphotos caused so much comment east of the Atlantic as to cause much questioning as to whether or not it was an authentic diary, and whether the pictures were actual battle photos or studio-faked. Though the question must inevitably remain open, the controversy does not detract from the human interest of the day to day record.

The entire entry is a daily record of life in one of the fighting squadrons, with the human spirit of the young pilots and their messes. The recorder at least knew the reaction to the daily losses and suc-

cesses of these lads who formed the first flights across the line. One can enjoy the air talk and photos in spite of any question of authenticity, and even marvel at the photos regardless of whether they were actually the work of a camera mounted in a plane or in a studio—a good many of them are splendid arguments for the authenticity of the whole book.

* * * *

"The Independent Arab."—Major Sir Herbert Young, C.M.G., D.S.O. (London: John Murray)—The romance which has been woven about the inimitable Lawrence of Arabia and about the exploits of General Allenby's force in Palestine is again dominant in this record of pre-war ramblings and war-time experience in the land of the Tigris. The author, who served in the Intelligence Service at the opening of the conflict, became embroiled in the Arabian phase of the conflict, and his record of that service, with its background of life in pre-war Hedjaz constitutes a thoroughly delectable morsel.

Major Young came to know Colonel Lawrence at the time the latter was engaged at the diggings at Charchemish, and his delineation of the Lawrentian tradition is one of the pleasing features of the story. The weight of the tale is further enhanced by the fact that the author played a major role in making possible the movement of the Arab force north-ward to co-operate with the Allenby advance on Jerusalem, and that during that movement he took part in several operations with Lawrence, furnishing us considerable insight into the manner in which the latter was able so to arouse the Arabs as to induce them to submerge tribal differences long enough to be of considerable weight against the Turks.

The book closes with a laudable story of the British advance on the Tigris and of the work of organization in that area following the rout of the Turks.

* * * *

"The Dark Invader."—Captain von Rintelen. (London: Lovat Dickson).—Our war-story writers have so far centred little of their attention on that phase of the war which revolved about the secret agents of the Central Powers who operated in the land to the south of us. In this present volume, Captain von Rintelen, former German naval officer, and one of the more successful of the German agents in America tells a vivid story of the methods employed to destroy commerce sailing to the Allies from American ports, and to arouse pro-German sympathies in the United States.

The whole thing is a tale of sabotage de luxe. One marvels at the thoroughness of the hastily, and secretly, organized centres of operation of these agents. The scope of operation was by no means limited to commerce, though destruction of munitions and food ships constituted a considerable portion of the endeavor; our author went as far, though, as organizing the unions which fomented dock-hand

strikes, and later reached out and aroused dormant jealousies along the Mexican border in order to force attention of the American Government in that direction. By the same token one must marvel at the efficiency of the British service which ferreted out these agents. Von Rintelen himself voices his praise of the British Secret Service, who, he later found, had known his instructions almost as thoroughly as did he, and who were able to follow his actions closely enough to pick him off the Dutch ship *Noordam* as he was travelling homeward incognito.

Without subscribing to the work the author carried out one can regret that he should have been, as he apparently was, sacrificed to his enemies by the jealousies of his brother-officers. The American government demanded the return of von Rintelen for trial for his acts of sabotage, in which the British service acquiesced. The result was a term of imprisonment in the federal penitentiary, a detention which left unmistakable and indelible impressions upon their subject.

* * * *

"Cairo to Siwa."—Major T. I. Dun, D.S.O., M.C., R.A.M.C (Glasgow: John Smith & Son).—In October 1932 an armored car squadron of XIIth Royal Lancers carried out a reconnaissance from Cairo across the Libyan wastes to Siwa—some eleven hundred miles of terrific travel. With twenty-odd machines went Major T. I. Dun of the R.A.M.C., and to this enterprising medico goes our appreciation of a splendid record of the odyssey. One does not hesitate in recommending it—printed in Cairo the entire make-up is unique, with its woodcuts, line sketches and detail of the area traversed and of its inhabitants.

Military readers will appreciate the picture the record gives of the possibilities of these new armoured car units. Others will enjoy the picture of this North African region and of the camps and beach towns scattered about in it.

* * * *

"In Scarlet and Plain Clothes."—Morris Longstreth. (Toronto: MacMillan's).—Morris Longstreth has become widely and favorably known across Canada for his history of "The Silent Force", and more recently through a series of magazine articles chronicling the secret and untiring work of that Force in ferreting out criminals. This new work by the same author is a popular-type tale of the work of our Mounted Police, in many ways a combination of the essentials of his two former works.

Outstanding historical features of the formation and work of the famous "Riders of the Plains" have been woven about the lives of two young Canadians who elected to come west with the Force in its earliest days. The life of these two youths from the Ottawa Valley after their enlistment and that of the men who pass with them

through the service provide a most acceptable and at the same time historically true insight into the inner workings of what is generally accepted as the world's outstanding police force. Western readers will refresh many time-worn incidents as such cases as the notorious Caschel case in Calgary and the riots of the Winnipeg strike slip through the pages and they will enjoy the manner in which Longstreth pictures them.

* * * *

"First Over Everest."—Official Account of the Houston-Mount Everest Expedition, 1933. (Toronto: Longmans; London: John Lane).—One of that type of historical volumes which become permanent fixtures for perusal by future generations is this story by the men who were first to look down upon "The Roof of the World". For all the fact that it must cover a wide range of technical and scientific matter the record is most absorbing reading—thanks to some member of the party who must have ranked near to the genius as a narrator.

One gathers from the sketch provided of all the earlier attempts to scale Everest that this brilliantly conceived plan of surmounting it by plane was to be no small job. The repeated failure of the scaling parties to get anywhere near the crest of the great peak caused this group of British adventurers to consider the feasibility of attempting the flight. The collaborators have given an interesting description of the enormous amount of preparatory work necessary before the flight became possible, the plans to scale this seven-mile height even requiring special construction to enable them to carry the desired instruments, cameras, oxygen equipment and the like. The photograph showing the pilot in his specially designed, electrically-heated flying suit rounds out a well presented picture of the obstacles which the expedition surmounted.

The record will carry a vivid appeal to even those readers who are not so concerned with the actual flight over Everest and Makalu, in its description of the flight out to India, the journey through little known and mystic Nepal, and in a most remarkable collection of photographs covering the entire undertaking from its inception to the return flight after the 'crossing'.

* * * *

"The Great Offensive."—Maurice Hindus. (New York: Smith and Haas).—Those of our readers who are following the trend of affairs in Russia will find this volume just about the most penetrating exposition of recent developments that has come by the Soviet officials—though they may not feel inclined to accept all the conclusions of the author. Maurice Hindus, a Russian himself, writes with a background based on Russian life under the Czars and his deductions of the value and shortcomings of the new regime carry much weight that the story written by an outsider would not command. His

earlier works, 'Humanity Uprooted' and 'Red Bread', have depicted the rise of the Soviet to power and the effect the upheaval had upon the peasantry. The present volume is an appraisal of the results of the first 'Five Year Plan' and delves into the progress of every phase of the new life engendered by the Soviet doctrine.

Hindus avers that 'the Russian worker still has a long way to go before becoming the equal of the American or Canadian in efficiency and alertness but he points out at the same time that considering the state of Russian industry at the time of the revolution they might have traversed a long stretch of the road toward American efficiency and still not be near the American. He discusses the disappearance of private business, the disavowal of religion, the collectivization of the farms, and the measures undertaken to correct social evils—and it is perhaps in this latter phase that readers will be apt to question the soundness of the Hindus deduction. The next five years may provide a more definite picture in this regard.

* * * *

"Rhodes."—Sarah G. Millin. (London: Chatto & Windus).—A short notice will suffice to commend this living biography of the great Cecil Rhodes to Journal readers. Rhodes himself lived through, and help mould, the period that ushered in the Jameson raid and the Boer War, and his name will forever be linked with the two.

Cecil Rhodes was perhaps the last of our great Imperialists, the men who built up the prestige of Britain in far continents by means that now stand open to question, but for whom justification of their actions is ever to be found in the spirit of the age in which they lived. This biographer has made no attempt to condone some of the actions of the great colonizer or of his lieutenants, but the view she affords of the era itself softens one's criticism of this 'Master of the Maptopos'.

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The Vimy Anniversary, 1933

MORE than 250 members of the Alberta Military Institute and their guests attended the dinner which marked the sixteenth anniversary, on Saturday, April 8th, 1933, of the Battle of Vimy Ridge. Those at the head of the table were His Honour W. L. Walsh, Lieutenant-Governor of Alberta, Mr. Justice Clarke, Brigadier H. H. Matthews, C.M.G., D.S.O., Right Reverend P. J. Monahan, Roman Catholic Bishop of Calgary and others. The speaker of the evening was Captain H. G. Nolan, M. C.

The battle, Captain Nolan said, marked an epoch in the history of modern warfare, and the plan served as a model in many British attacks in the following 18 months. It proved that a fortified position, no matter how strong its defences, was still capable of being pierced, provided that every arm of the service was given a fitting task, and that every ounce of energy was skilfully directed in carrying it out.

"Such an elaborate prearranged attack had never before been attempted, and its success was due to perfect co-ordination of action on the part of every branch of the service, and of every man in the corps. But in a greater measure it was due to the inspiring example and brilliant generalship of the corps commander, Sir Julian Byng," he said.

One hundred thousand Canadians took part in the battle, he said, and between April 9 and 14, 1917, for valor in the field four Victoria Crosses were awarded to Canadians in recognition of outstanding acts of bravery.

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CASUALTIES to Canadians totalled about 14,000. The area captured approximated eighteen square miles with a deepest advance of about six miles. The Canadian Corps met and defeated eight German divisions and captured nine villages, Givency, Petit Vimy, Vimy, Thelus, Farbus, Wallerval, Arfeun, Fresnoy and Filleuls.

Total of 5081 Germans were taken prisoners and 64 guns and howitzers, 106 trench mortars and 125 machine guns were taken.

On October 4, 1914, the Germans attacked the French positions, took Givency and captured Vimy Ridge as far south as Thelus, he said, and in that month the front became stabilized, and the "hazardous line became permanent," he said.

Vimy, being inside the German lines, became valuable as the war progressed, owing to valuable coal fields belonging to the French lying north and east of it. The ridge dominated the Arras salient.

In December, 1914, French reinforcements arrived and attack on the ridge was made for four days, but no ground was taken. Ten battalions on December 27 succeeded in only taking half a mile of front line trenches.

Throughout March and April, 1915, there were a series of local attacks, which improved the French position, but at a cost in casualties disproportionate to the ground taken. Attack was planned in May and the preliminary bombardment opened on May 7.

Two days later bombardment opened up the entire German front line, the infantry attacked. Within 15 minutes, 3000 French soldiers were killed by German machine gun fire. An advance of two and a half miles was made.

Unfortunately, after the attack, French troops were exhausted and the operation depended upon the arrival of reinforcements. These did not arrive, the Germans attacked and gained Vimy and the ground won by the French was lost. French improved their position in the next few days, but after June 15 the Germans still held Vimy.

* * * * *

ANOTHER attack was planned by the French in the fall, but after two days the French broke off the attack. Early in 1916 the British relieved the French in this sector. One British general proposed a main attack south of Arras, but Sir Douglas Haig opposed, stating that attack should be made at Vimy.

It was planned that three French divisions should attack south of Arras, while the main British attack would be near Vimy. At the beginning of April, 1916, the last Canadian reinforcement had been relieved on the Somme on Vimy was a "welcome change," said the speaker.

Vimy was a "little bit of heaven to the Canadians who came from the Somme" he continued. Artillery fire was concentrated on the Germans that fall, and in November, 1916, a sign was found on the German front line, "We too are from the Somme—cut out your artillery."

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DURING the winter of 1916-1917, 48 trench raids were carried out successfully and 338 Germans captured, the object being of determining the strength of the German defences. The Germans considered the ridge impregnable, he said. Air force prepared valuable photographic maps of the ridge and the other side of it.

In the Battle of Arras, 17 divisions took part, of which three were Canadian. In March, 1917, preliminary bombardment opened, with 980 heavy and 1890 field guns taking part. As early as January the Germans knew that there was going to be an attack.

Germans retreated to the Hindenburg line, and obviated the necessity of a much greater retreat should Vimy be lost. The all-important question to the Germans was "when", and it was later found some battalions had "stood to" for as much as 11 days.

"Easter Sunday 1917, will always stand out in the memory of the Canadian corps," he said. "Canadians moved into position. Sunshine heralded the approach of spring. It was a beautiful and devilish thing. The ground opened and great pools of red fire gushed forth.

"Low storm clouds later sprang up. At four seconds before 5:30 o'clock that morning all guns ceased firing, to synchronized watches. It was as if some giant conductor had poised his baton at the 'stop' while the orchestra was in the midst of a crescendo.

"And then, precisely at 5:30 o'clock every gun on the 12-mile front opened up. In the dim morning light the scene was terrific, the whole countryside lighted up, the earth trembled. The Canadians moved up and in less than three minutes signals of distress were hoisted by the Germans.

"The advance met with no great opposition in the front line trenches, which were captured within forty minutes. Thelus, a virtual citadel of fortifications, fell within the hour. It was only on one front that difficulty was encountered, and it was not until two o'clock that Beggar trench, below Hill 145 was captured.

"The Germans reinforced Hill 145, but on April 10th, the 10th Brigade was able to drive the Germans off that hill. Hill 145 dominated the Pimple, which gave much trouble in the next few days. By the early afternoon of the ninth complete success was assured.

"On the night of the ninth a heavy snow fell, and the field was turned into a quagmire, and it required a week of the hardest work to get the guns over the ridge. On April 12, Canadians, including the 50th, set out to capture the Pimple. and in a hand to hand struggle drove the Germans off.

"This enabled the Canadians to threaten Lens, and on the 12th the population prepared to evacuate the town, which had been converted by the Germans into a vast machine gun fortress. On April 16, the attack on Aisne opened up, but was not successful, 250,000 French being killed. These, with the exception of two smaller battles on April 28 and May 3 were the last in this sector."

Captain Nolan completed his address by showing a series of lantern slides from photographs taken by an official war photographer before, during and after Vimy Ridge.

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BISHOP Monahan, in proposing the toast to "His Majesty's Forces", stated that Vimy was a battle which brought all Canadians together and which was a factor for Canadian unity. Selfishness and greed he declared to be the great enemy of today.

"Success has been taken as the great achievement, it has mattered not how," he said. "That philosophy is false. Military men are moved by unselfishness, and it is that unselfishness, good fellowship, charity and love that is needed to build up a solid and unified country.

"It was not always thus," he said. "His Majesty's forces are doing constructive work in bringing back unselfishness and unity and strength, they are trying to thaw out of our hearts the spirit of unselfishness."

Brigadier Matthews, D.O.C., M. D. 13, expressed a hope that the battle of Vimy Ridge would be annually celebrated, "until perhaps there is only one left," recalling that the Battle of Waterloo was commemorated by annual dinners for 37 years.

Lieut.-Col. G. W. Harold Millican, M. C., proposing the toast to "Our Guests" said all present were citizens of Canada, the only difference between members and guests, being that members held or once held a commission in His Majesty's forces.

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TODAY we are facing one of the most difficult times ever experienced," he said. "If we go back to 1914 and think of the conditions existing then, and compare them with the conditions of today, may I ask you, in the mind of the ordinary citizen, which is the more serious?

"At the present time we are inclined to think of problems within our own boundaries. Think of Europe today. How great a spark today or in the near future may it take to break up that pot of dynamite and what would be the consequences if it did break?

"In these countries we find people who are full of hatred, suspicion and prejudices. There is only one country with a government that is really striving for peace in Europe, and that is the Imperial government of Great Britain.

"There is only one possibility of avoiding a European war, and that is if the British nation can stop it. With modern transportation, think just how close we are. Is Canada any further away from Europe than it was in 1914? Suppose there is another conflict where do we stand?

"Soldiers of this country in the last conflict are the fathers of the sons of this country today. If European countries should go to

war, we should be well advised to guard our own shores and let them go to it. Let us take care of our own nation first. We can do a greater service by keeping out of it, and trying to keep others out."

His Honour, Lieutenant-Governor W. L. Walsh, said, "no man could have lived for 29 years in Calgary without acquiring a tremendous love for the place, and I seize every possible opportunity to come down here." His Honour told of a trip to Vimy Ridge four years ago.

Lieut.-Col. E. R. Knight, president of the institute and chairman of the evening, in reading messages of congratulation on the eve of the anniversary of Vimy Ridge, included messages from Baron Byng of Vimy and from Sir Arthur Currie.

The guard of honour, which was reviewed by His Honour in the lobby of the hotel, prior to the banquet, was supplied by the Alberta Military Institute Cadet Corps. Music during the evening was supplied by the band of the 1st Battalion, Calgary Regiment, under the leadership of Bandmaster W. R. Herbert, (W.O.)

Institute Scholarships, 1933

WINNERS of the two scholarships offered annually by the Institute to Cadets of the University of Alberta Contingent, C.O.T.C., were won in 1933 by 2nd Lieut. Ralph Cargill Davis ("B" Certificate, \$50 scholarship) and Sergeant John Rattray Ower ("A" Certificate, \$25 scholarship).

It is encouraging to learn from the Officer Commanding the Contingent (Lieut.-Col. F. A. Stewart Dunn) that winners of these scholarships in past years from 1929 inclusive are rendering useful service in various branches of the service.

W. O. Peffers (1929) is now an officer in the Royal Canadian Corps of Signals (P.F.); J. W. Bridge, of the same year, is commissioned in the C.O.T.C. and is transferring to the C.A.M.C. G. C. French (1930) is commissioned in the Cadet Services of Canada. H. W. Becker (1931) is a Pilot Officer in the Reserve R.C.A.F., and W. W. Maybank is commissioned in the C.O.T.C. C. E. Holmes (1932) is commissioned in the C.O.T.C. and will join the C.A.M.C. upon receiving his doctorate in medicine. A. F. Buckham is also commissioned in the C.O.T.C.

Annual General Meeting

THE Annual General Meeting of the Alberta Military Institute was held in the Garrison Officers' Mess, Friday, January 26th, 1934, with the President, Lieut.-Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., A.D.C., occupying the chair. The following members were present:—

Brigadier H. H. Matthews, C.M.G., D.S.O.; Major A. J. Davis; Major H. Strachan, V.C., M.C.; Major P. P. Littlewood, V.D.; Major J. F. Scott, LL.B.; Capt. G. Gidley-Pook; Lieut. J. B. Whiteoak; Capt. S. M. Welsh; Capt. W. P. Taylor; Capt. G. D. C. McEwen; Lt.-Col. D. J. MacDonald, D.S.O., M.C.; Lieut. H. C. Farthing, B.A., M.L.A.; Lt.-Col. L. F. Page, D.S.O.; Lt.-Col. David Ritchie, M.C.; Lt.-Col. G. R. Johnston, V.D.; Major L. A. Cavanaugh; Capt. J. U. Acton; Capt. C. E. Page; Lieut. G. M. Ewens; Capt. W. Maxwell, M.M.; Major, the Rev. Dr. G. W. Kerby; Lieut. T. W. Collinge; Lieut. E. Hulbert; Lieut. H. E. Creech, M.M.; Lieut. T. E. Burns; Capt. P. J. R. Payne; Lieut. R. T. Baxter; Capt. G. S. Purdy; M.M.; Capt. H. G. Kennedy; Lt.-Col. P. Earnshaw, D.S.O., M.C.; Major A. R. Costigane; Lieut. F. H. Fish; Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle; Capt. Norman Plummer; Capt. L. H. Chapman; Lieut. W. A. Millar; Lieut. H. E. Wright; Major V. R. Jones; Capt. D. F. Rogers; Lieut. W. E. Broadley; Lieut. M. H. Staples, BA.; Lt.-Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., A.D.C.; Major P. V. Harcourt, D.C.M.; Lt.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, M.B.E., V.D.; Capt. G. Z. Pinder; Lt.-Col. P. R. Shields, M.C.; Inspector E. W. Bavin; Capt. A. R. Fortin; Lieut. A. W. Scott; Lieut. M. H. Robinson; Lieut. F. J. Butler; Major John W. Hugill, K.C.; Major J. A. Murray; Lieut. A. L. Tregillus; Capt. J. Hogarth; Major W. K. Jull, M.C.; Capt. W. G. Stunden; Lt.-Comdr. W. G. Bromley; Capt. M. G. Cody; Capt. W. H. Edwards; Lt.-Col. J. N. Gunn, D.S.O., V.D.; Capt. J. H. Neeland, M. M.; Major S. E. Bradley; Lieut. S. L. Miller; Lt.-Col. E. R. Selby, D.S.O., V.D.; Major J. W. Littleton, M.C.; Capt. W. O. Hieland; Lt.-Col. W. B. Robbins.

Minutes of Last Annual Meeting

The Minutes of the last Annual Meeting held in the Garrison Officers' Mess, Tuesday, January 24th, 1933, having been printed in the Annual Journal, it was moved by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, seconded by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, that these be accepted as read. Carried.

Membership

The application for membership of Lieut. W. H. A. Thompson, R.O., resident, duly recommended by the Directors, was dealt with and on the motion of Major A. J. Davis, seconded by Capt. G. D. C. McEwen, was approved.

GENERAL BUSINESS

Report of President

The President presented his report for the year 1933, as follows:—

Brigadier Matthews and Gentlemen:—

I have pleasure in presenting to you a brief resume of the activities of your Institute for the past year.

Despite conditions which have tended to restrict membership in the organization, we have managed fairly well to keep up our numerical strength. We all realize that it is somewhat difficult to expect our full membership to be retained when finances are lean, to say the least, and your Directors, for that reason, have deemed it a good thing to be slightly elastic in the carrying out of a strict interpretation of the Constitution and By-laws regarding membership dues, knowing that when circumstances permit a number of our members will readily place themselves in good membership standing. I mention this matter as it will be apparent when your Treasurer presents his report that of necessity our financial receipts from this source have somewhat depreciated. At that, however, we are on the right side of the ledger.

During the year under review we lost by death some of our oldest members. Captain the Rev. W. H. Muncaster, M.A., B.D., our Chaplain for many years and a keen worker for everything for the good of soldiers and the service, was a very great loss to the Institute. He was a Life Member of the organization. Colonel George Macdonald, V.D., a former District Officer Commanding of the District and our second President of the Institute and a Charter Member, was also a very great loss to the Service, the Institute and to the community, as were also Major G. A. Ings and Major Clarence Loughheed.

Fifteen General Meetings were held during 1933. The addresses of the speakers, which were of a high standard, will be dealt with as fully as possible in the Journal for that year. While it is probably not desirable to single out any particular speaker in this connection, I feel that I should mention the unfailing courtesy and kindness of Major-General the Hon. W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D., in visiting us annually and delivering to our members such splendid addresses. The time and labour involved in the preparation of such addresses as this Officer favours us with speaks for the unflagging interest he has in this organization.

Our very sincere thanks and appreciation are due to the gentlemen who gave us during the past year such interesting and instructive lectures.

One of the largest attended meetings was held in the Officers' Mess of the Lord Strathcona's Horse (R.C.) at Sarcee Camp, through

the kindness of the Officer Commanding and Officers of that unit, when Major C. A. P. Murison, M.C., Royal Artillery, gave an address on "The Evolution of Tanks and Anti-Tank Tactics".

Through the kindness and co-operation of the Calgary Board of Trade, members were extended an invitation to attend the luncheon in honour of Sir Herbert Samuel, British representative to the meeting of the Institute of Pacific Relations, held August 28th, and many members took advantage of the opportunity of hearing this speaker.

The Vimy Dinner was a most successful affair and the brilliantly descriptive address given on that occasion relative to the Battle of Vimy Ridge, by Captain H. G. Nolan, M.C., M.A., will long be remembered. It was particularly gratifying to the Directors to note on that occasion the large number of young officers of the services who attended, and who, by reason of age, could not have been serving in those years.

The Armistice Ball was a successful affair socially, but your Directors feel that unless this function is supported to a much larger extent by our members, the significance of the occasion will rapidly be lost. It is apparent to those who regularly attend this affair that the largest percentage of those present are not connected either with the Institute or with the Service. It is, of course, realized that present day conditions are in a large measure responsible for this state of affairs, but it is hoped that as the years go on the percentage of attendance will show a reversed condition and that a return to the years when uniforms predominated is not far distant. I urge the members to do all in their power to attend the Annual Ball, in uniform, and by their example demonstrate to the people at large the fact that the significance of the function is not lost sight of by those who served during those years, or by those who are following the best traditions by entering the Services.

A Garrison Theatre Night was held, with the Dumbells as the attraction. This was very well attended by all ranks and a very successful dance was held in the Garrison Officers' Mess after the show.

The Cadet Corps of the Institute is functioning very well and will be dealt with in a Report which will be presented to you by the Cadet Corps Committee. The thanks of the members are due to the Officers who are guiding the work of the Corps, to Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., District Cadet Officer, and the Permanent Force Instructors of M.D. No. 13.

The Red Deer Branch continues to thrive and is a very live organization. The parent Institute has continued to assist this branch in every way possible, furnishing speakers whenever called upon, at no cost to the Red Deer Branch.

I regret that the Lethbridge Branch has not shown the same spirit, due to circumstances of which we can obtain no knowledge. It is hoped, however, to revive this branch.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

The Treasurer will present his Financial Statement to you, of which, in accordance with the Constitution, each member has received a copy by mail. May I at this point express my sincere appreciation for the help I have received from Mr. Miller, the Treasurer; credit for the fact that the statement shows a small balance on the right side is entirely due to his unremitting care of the finances. Your Directors recommend its adoption.

The Institute Library has been largely augmented through the purchase from the estate of the late Colonel George Macdonald of some one hundred and thirty-eight books, which include some really excellent works of reference. I cannot too strongly express the appreciation of the Directors and Members to our Honorary Librarian, Lieut. M. H. Staples, B.A., who has given so much of his time and study to the Library. At this time might I state that the work of the Librarian would be considerably facilitated by the members returning books on loan within a reasonable period.

The Annual Journal for 1933 will be published in due course. As might be expected as a result of very decreased advertising, the publication was made at a financial loss for 1932. It is desired again to emphasize the fact that only by a fair and just policy of reciprocation by our members with those firms which advertise, may repeat advertisements be expected.

Particulars of the winners of the Institute Scholarships donated to the University of Alberta Canadian Officers Training Corps have been reported previously and will be dealt with in the Journal. Your Directors were interested in ascertaining just what results were obtained in this connection and how many of the scholarship winners had continued their interest in the Militia. They were extremely gratified in checking the matter up, to find that with the exception of one, every scholarship winner, since their inception, had been appointed to Commissions in either the Permanent or Non-Permanent Militia and the exception will be recommended for a commission in the near future. I think, gentlemen, that this speaks well for the good work which these scholarships are doing for the Service, and for the extreme care which has obviously been taken in making the awards.

The relations of the Institute with the Garrison Officers' Mess Committee have been sustained during the year and your Directors desire to express their appreciation, on your behalf, of the co-operation and courtesy of the Mess Committee in connection with the use of the Mess Rooms. At the request of the Committee and in accordance with the power vested in the Directors at the last Annual Meeting, an additional \$100 was paid for 1933, making a total of \$400 for that year.

In accordance with the motion passed at the last Annual Meeting, Field Marshal Viscount Byng of Vimy was invited to be a Patron of the Institute and the invitation was graciously accepted.

Viscount Byng consistently took a great interest in our Institute and that interest is still maintained.

I beg to tender my sincere and appreciative thanks to Brigadier H. H. Matthews, C.M.G., D.S.O., District Officer Commanding, Military District No. 13, and to the Staff of that Headquarters for their unfailing co-operation and kindly interest in Institute affairs. This interest and support has made my tenure as President very agreeable.

To the Directors and Officers of the Institute I am indeed grateful for their loyal support and the manner in which they assiduously worked for the benefit of the organization. In this connection I join with my predecessors in referring to the co-operation and services rendered me by your Honorary Secretary, Major A. J. Davis, who has at all times given me his utmost assistance. I also feel that I should fail in my duty were I not to refer to the loyalty and work of Q.M. Sgt. Keir. Only those who are closely connected with the affairs of the organization are cognizant of the interest Q.M. Sgt. Keir has in the Institute, and which has been sustained since its inception.

Gentlemen, I am indeed grateful to you all for the honour you conferred upon me in electing me as your President for 1933 and for the support given me during that year. Your loyalty in turning out to the meetings, on many occasions in very inclement weather, I thoroughly appreciate, and I ask the continuation of such loyalty and interest in Institute affairs to be given my successor.

E. R. KNIGHT, Lt.-Col.
President.

It was moved by Lieut.-Col. I. F. Page, seconded by Lieut.-Col. D. Ritchie, that the Report of the President be adopted and that a hearty vote of thanks be tendered the President, Executive Officers and Directors for 1933, for their work on behalf of the Institute. Carried.

Report of Auditor

The report of the Auditor of the Institute, Lt. F. J. Butler, certifying that all books, accounts, securities, etc., of the Institute had been examined and found to be correct, was read.

Moved by Major H. Strachan, seconded by Lieut. E. Hulbert, that the report be adopted. Carried.

Annual Financial Statement

The Financial Statement for 1933 was read by the Treasurer, Mr. S. L. Miller. In accordance with the Constitution and By-laws a copy of this statement had been mailed to all members with notice of the Annual Meeting.

It was moved by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, seconded by Capt. A. R. Fortin, that the report be adopted. Carried.

Library Report

The Honorary Librarian, Lieut. M. H. Staples, B.A., was read and on motion of Major P. P. Littlewood, seconded by Lt.-Col. P. R. Shields, was adopted. The Directors were authorized to expend the sum of \$100 for the year 1934 as recommended by them, for Library purposes.

Lieut. Staples announced that it was with great regret he found it necessary to relinquish the appointment of Honorary Librarian owing to pressure of business.

It was moved by Lieut. H. C. Farthing, seconded by Lieut. E. Hulbert, that the recommendation of the Honorary Librarian be left to the incoming Directors and that they also deal with the question of Lieut. Staples' resignation or, if possible, so arrange to provide this officer with assistance, and that the sincere thanks of the membership be extended to Lieut. Staples for the great amount of work he had expended on the Library.

Cadet Corps

The report of the Cadet Corps for 1933 was presented by Lieut. H. E. Wright, Chairman of the Cadet Corps Committee.

The Directors recommended that the sum of \$200.00, as requested by the Committee, be voted for 1934, to be expended at the discretion of the Directors.

The report was adopted and the above sum authorized on a motion of Capt. W. P. Taylor, seconded by Insp. E. W. Bavin, and it was unanimously carried that a grateful vote of thanks be made to the Cadet Corps Committee, Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., and the Cadet Corps Instructors, Lieuts. Neal and Lockwood, for their work in this connection.

Clerical Assistance to the Secretary

The Directors recommended that a sum not exceeding \$250.00 be authorized for clerical assistance to the Secretary for 1934.

It was moved by Lieut. M. H. Robinson, seconded by Lt.-Col. L. F. Page that this sum be authorized. Carried.

Lieut. M. H. Robinson moved that an honorarium not exceeding \$75.00 be given to the Honorary Secretary, which was seconded by Lt.-Col. L. F. Page.

An amendment to this motion was made by Lt.-Col. P. Earnshaw, seconded by Major L. A. Cavanaugh, that the question of an honorarium to the Honorary Secretary be left to the incoming Directors to deal with and bring forward their recommendation.

Clerical Assistance to the Treasurer

The Directors recommended that a sum not exceeding \$250.00 be authorized for clerical assistance to the Treasurer for 1934.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

Moved by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, seconded by Capt. K. B. Lockett, that this sum be authorized. Carried.

Annual Journal for 1934

The Directors recommended that the publication of the Annual Journal be continued for 1934.

It was moved by Lt.-Col. L. F. Page, seconded by Major H. Strachan, that publication for 1934 be approved. Carried.

Vimy Dinner

The Directors recommended that the Vimy Dinner be held on Monday, April 9th, 1934.

This was approved on a motion made by Lieut. H. E. Wright, seconded by Major A. R. Costigane,

Armistice Ball

The Directors recommended that the Annual Ball in commemoration of the Armistice, be held on Monday, November 12th, 1934.

Moved by Lt.-Col. P. R. Shields, seconded by Capt. W. O. Highland and carried, that this date be approved.

Use of Garrison Officers' Mess

The Directors recommended that the arrangement between the Garrison Officers' Mess and the Institute be continued on the basis as for 1933, i.e., that the forthcoming Directorate be empowered

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to deal with the Mess Committee for the use of the rooms and charge for refreshments.

This was approved on a motion made by Major J. F. Scott, seconded by Capt. G. D. C. McEwen.

Garrison Theatre Night

In dealing with this matter the Directors had recommended that if an offer was received from any Company, same must first be referred to Officers Commanding units of the Garrison, for their consideration.

The meeting approved this action on a motion made by Major P. P. Littlewood, seconded by Capt. K. B. Lockett.

C.O.T.C. Scholarships

The Directors recommended the continuance of the Institute Scholarships on the same basis as adopted last year, the awards to be left to the incoming Directorate to decide on the method to be adopted, in consultation with the District Officer Commanding, M.D. No. 13 and the O.C., University of Alberta C.O.T.C.

Moved by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, seconded by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, that this procedure be adopted. Carried.

Affiliated Branches

The Secretary read the report of the Red Deer branch covering the past year.

The Institute has met all requests of speakers for this branch and had covered the necessary expenses of these gentlemen in visiting Red Deer.

It had not been possible during 1933 to have any action revived in the Lethbridge branch but steps would be taken in 1934 to make every endeavour to get this branch active.

Tribute to Local Press

The Secretary moved that a vote of thanks be extended to The Calgary Albertan and The Calgary Herald for the courtesy extended the Institute through their columns during the past year.

This was seconded by Lieut. S. L. Miller and unanimously carried.

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NOMINATION OF OFFICERS FOR 1934

Patrons

His Royal Highness, The Prince of Wales.

His Excellency, The Governor-General of Canada.

His Honor, W. L. Walsh, Lieutenant-Governor of Alberta.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

Field Marshal, The Viscount Byng, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., M.V.O., D.C.L., LL.D.

Hon. Colonel, the Rt. Hon. R. B. Bennett, P.C., K.C., LL.D., Prime Minister of Canada.

Lt.-Col. the Hon. D. M. Sutherland, D.S.O., V.D., M.P., Minister of National Defence.

Major-General A. G. L. MacNaughton, C.M.G., D.S.O., Chief of the General Staff.

Brigadier C. F. Constantine, D.S.O., Adjutant-General.

Lieut.-General Sir A. C. Macdonell, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Major-General A. H. Bell, C.M.G., D.S.O.

Major-General the Hon. W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Colonel James Walker, V.D.

Hon. Colonel the Hon. Patrick Burns.

It was moved by Lt.-Col. J. N. Gunn, seconded by Capt. D. F. Rogers, that the list of Patrons as submitted be approved. Carried.

Honorary President

Brigadier H. H. Matthews, C.M.G., D.S.O., District Officer Commanding, Military District No. 13.

Moved by Lt.-Col. L. F. Page, seconded by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, that Brigadier Matthews be appointed Honorary President of the Institute for 1934. Carried.

Honorary Vice-Presidents

Colonel G. E. Sanders, C.M.G., D.S.O.

Lt.-Col. J. N. Gunn, D.S.O., V.D.

Colonel D. G. L. Cunningham, M.C., V.D.

Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O.

Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C.

Lieut. Hugh Farthing, B.A., M.L.A.

Lt.-Col. L. F. Page, D.S.O.

Lt.-Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., A.D.C.

Moved by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, seconded by Major P. P. Littlewood, that the above Officers be appointed Honorary Vice-Presidents for 1934. Carried.

Executive Officers and Directors

PRESIDENT:—

In accordance with the Constitution and By-laws of the Institute, a notice was sent to all members, inviting nominations for appointment to the Executive and Directorate for 1934. No nominations had been received through this channel.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

The President had appointed a Nomination Committee which had met on December 4th and subsequent occasions, and this Committee had submitted the following Officers' names for appointment for 1934; each Officer had consented to his name being placed in nomination.

FOR PRESIDENT:—

Lt.-Colonel D. J. MacDonald, D.S.O., M.C., L.S.H. (R.C.),

FOR VICE-PRESIDENT:—

Lt.-Col. George R. Johnston, V.D., C.A.M.C.

HONORARY SECRETARY:—

Major A. J. Davis, Calgary Highlanders. For re-election.

TREASURER:—

Mr. S. L. Miller. For re-election.

DIRECTORS:—

Major J. W. Littleton, M.C., C.A. For re-election.

Major P. P. Littlewood, V.D. 15, C.L.H. For re-election.

Major H. Pryde, 13th Div. Signals. For re-election.

Inspector E. W. Bavin, R.C.M.P. New appointment.

Captain Jas. Hogarth, Calgary Highlanders. New appointment.

Major O. L. Spencer. New appointment.

Lt.-Col. P. R. Shields, M.C., 13th Div. C.A.S.C. New appointment.

The Report of this Committee as above had been presented to the Directors, who recommended it in its entirety for adoption.

The Directors had also considered the Constitution and By-law in connection with the election of Officers, with particular reference to the wording of Para. VII and they recommended that the incoming Directorate be asked to go thoroughly into this question, bringing their findings to the attention of the membership with a view to amending the Constitution if decided upon.

PRESIDENT—It was moved by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, seconded by Major J. F. Scott, that Lt.-Col. D. J. MacDonald, D.S.O., M.C., L.S.H. (R.C.), be appointed President of the Institute for 1934. Carried.

Lt.-Col. MacDonald informed the members of his impending departure for Ottawa at an early date but stated that he would be glad to do what he could until that date if desired.

VICE-PRESIDENT—Moved by Lt. H. E. Wright, seconded by Lieut. A. W. Scott, that Lt.-Col. G. R. Johnston, V.D., be appointed Vice-President for 1934. Carried unanimously.

DIRECTORS—Moved by Major J. F. Scott, seconded by Lieut. A. W. Scott, that the following Officers be appointed Directors of the

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

Institute for 1934: Major J. W. Littleton, M.C.; Major P. P. Littlewood, V.D.; Major H. Pryde; Inspector E. W. Bavin; Capt. Jas. Hogarth; Major O. L. Spencer; Lt.-Col. P. R. Shields, M.C. Carried unanimously.

HONORARY SECRETARY—Moved by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, seconded by Major H. Strachan, that Major A. J. Davis be appointed Honorary Secretary of the Institute for 1934. Carried unanimously.

TREASURER—Moved by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, seconded by Major W. K. Jull, that Mr. S. L. Miller be appointed Treasurer of the Institute for 1934. Carried unanimously.

HONORARY CHAPLAIN—The Directors recommended that Honorary Major the Rev. Dr. G. W. Kerby be appointed Honorary Chaplain of the Institute for 1934, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Honorary Capt. the Rev. W. H. Muncaster, M.A., B.D. This was unanimously carried on a motion made by Lt.-Col. Page and seconded by Lieut. H. C. Farthing.

The retiring President then vacated the chair which was taken by Lt.-Col. D. J. MacDonald, D.S.O., M.C., who thanked the members for the honour accorded him and stated that he hoped to be able to render some service to the Institute before his departure from the city.

The meeting adjourned on a motion by Lt.-Col. W. B. Robbins at 9.35 p.m.

ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

Revenue Statement for Year Ending 31st December, 1933.

INCOME

Membership Dues	\$1,513.00
Grant: Department National Defence	405.00
Interest	263.17
Armistice Ball	58.67
Theatre Night	26.94

DISBURSEMENTS

Lectures, etc.—		
Expenses and Refreshments	\$308.85	
Vimy Dinner	95.01	
New Year's Reception 1933	50.00	
		\$ 453.86
Grants—		
Garrison Officers' Mess		400.00
A.M.I. Cadet Corps		170.81
Annual Journal—		
Expenses	\$338.54	
Less Receipts	196.50	
		142.04
Scholarships		75.00
Affiliated Branches		10.00
General Expenses—		
Clerical Help	\$480.00	
Circulars and Notices to Members	161.98	
Depreciation:		
Library	\$41.52	
Office Equipment and Pictures	32.61	
		74.13
Printing and Stationery	72.72	
Postage	52.40	
Wreaths	31.00	
Audit Fees	30.00	
Gratuities	20.00	
Accounts Receivable Written Off	\$24.00	
Less Provision for Commission	6.00	
		18.00
Telegrams and Telephone Calls	9.33	
A.M.I. Baseball Team	9.00	
Revenue Stamps and Exchange	8.88	
Miscellaneous	11.80	
		979.24
Total Expenses for 1933	\$2,230.95	
Surplus for Year 1933 carried to Balance Sheet	3.583	
		<u>\$2,266.78</u> <u>\$2,266.78</u>

Audited and found correct:

F. J. BUTLER, Lieut., Auditor.
Calgary, Alberta, 6th January, 1934.

Certified correct:

S. L. MILLER, Treasurer.

ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

BALANCE SHEET - 31ST DECEMBER, 1933

ASSETS		LIABILITIES	
CASH ACCOUNT—			
Cash on Hand	\$ 72 00	Prepaid Dues, 1934	\$ 32.00
Bank of Montreal		Prepaid Advertisement	5.00
Current Account	53 75	SURPLUS ACCOUNT—	
Savings Account	23.76	A.M.I. Balance as 1st January, 1933	\$5,867.37
		Profit for year 1933 as per Revenue Statement	35.83
Accrued Interest Receivable	\$ 149 51	Surplus as at 31st December, 1933	5,903.20
Accounts Receivable	85 40		
Bonds and Saving Certificates (at cost)	23.00		
Library Books and Book Cases	5,173.50		
Less Depreciation	\$472.70		
	41.52		
Office Equipment and Pictures	431.18		
Less Depreciation	77.61		
	<u>\$5,940.20</u>		<u>\$5,940.20</u>

Audited and found correct,
F. J. BUTLER, Lieut., Auditor.
Calgary, Alberta, 6th January, 1934.

Certified correct,
S. L. MILLER, Treasurer.

The Royal Military College of Canada

THE Royal Military College of Canada is the only National Educational Institution in the Dominion and is specially designed to furnish the Gentlemen Cadets with a high scientific and academic education which will provide the foundation for their success in either civil or military life. Commissions in all branches of the Imperial Army, Canadian Permanent Force and Royal Canadian Air Force are offered annually to Graduates. A limited number of Naval Cadetships are available to Gentlemen Cadets who successfully complete the first two years at the Royal Military College, and who desire to obtain commissions in the Royal Canadian Navy.

A Diploma of Graduation from the Royal Military College is accepted by the principal Universities of Canada as equivalent, subject for subject, to those covered in the first three years of the university course. The length of the course is four years, in four terms of about ten months each, and the total cost of the course, including accommodation, board, uniform, instructional materials, etc., is about \$1,500. Candidates must be between 16 and 19 years of age on the 1st January of the year in which they enter the College. The entrance qualifications are Junior matriculation in Arts or Science or a pass standard in any of the equivalent examinations conducted by the Provincial Departments of Education. Vacancies are allotted, according to population, to the respective Provinces, and are filled in order of merit obtained by candidates in the examinations above mentioned.

Applications, accompanied by certified abstract from Birth Register, in duplicate, and certificate of good moral character, signed by the clergyman of the place of worship the candidate usually attends, or by the head of the school or college at which he has received his education for at least two preceding years, should be submitted before the 31st May to

**THE SECRETARY
DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, ONTARIO**

by whom full particulars will be furnished.

Alberta Military Institute

Red Deer Branch

DURING the past year the Red Deer Branch of the Alberta Military Institute carried on their useful work. In accordance with a practice started two or three years ago we held two ladies' nights, those this year being equally as interesting as our previous ones and were addressed by Major W. T. H. Cripps, the subject, "Politics and Armaments", and Major-Gen. the Hon W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D., the subject, "World Conditions."

The annual meeting was held in the month of June, at Sylvan Lake, at which Capt. H. G. Scott of Calgary addressed the meeting on "The Restoration of the Monarchy in France by Napoleon III."

The following officers were elected at the annual meeting: President, Major W. J. Botterill; Vice-President, Capt. J. Drever; Directors, Lt.-Col. R. C. Lister, M.C., M.M.; Major W. T. H. Cripps; Capt. J. Ballantyne, M.C., and Capt. C. R. Bunn; Secretary, Capt. R. S. Gillespie, M.C.

The following addresses have been given to the members of the Institute and their friends since the last Alberta Military Institute Journal: Major-Gen. the Hon W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D., "World Conditions." Lt.-Col. R. C. Lister, M.C., M.M., "The Development of Artillery." Major A. R. Gibson, "A Military Romance." Joseph Welsh, "The Historical Development of South Africa." Brig. H. H. Matthews, C.M.G., D.S.O., "Military Intelligence." Capt. H. G. Scott, "The Restoration of the Monarchy in France by Napoleon III." Major W. T. H. Cripps, "Politics and Armaments." Lt. H. E. Wright, "Zeebrugge." Capt. H. G. Scott, "European Conditions." Lt.-Col. G. P. Elliott, "Gateway for Russia; Afghanistan 1838-1933."

Below is a list of members of the Red Deer Branch for 1932-33:—

Lt.-Col. R. C. Lister, M.C., M.M.; Lt.-Col. W. J. McAllister, M.C.; Major W. J. Botterill; Lt.-Col. G. P. Elliot; Major W. T. H. Cripps; Capt. R. S. Gillespie, M.C.; Capt. H. G. Scott; Capt. J. Ballantyne, M.C.; Capt. C. R. Bunn; Capt. J. Drever; Capt. F. Appleton; Capt. A. R. Cameron; Lt. L. M. Colpitts; Lt. Harold Haste; Lt. R. E. Jones; Lt. R. M. Whyte; Major A. R. Gibson; Lt. C. D. Husband; Lt. E. Hives; J. Welsh; Lt. F. deC. Callender.

R. S. GILLESPIE, Captain,
Secretary-Treasurer.

Red Deer, Alberta.

Alberta Military Institute Membership List

PAST PRESIDENTS

Colonel G. E. Sanders, C.M.G., D.S.O.	1920-21
Colonel George Macdonald, V.D.	1922
Lt.-Col. J. N. Gunn, D.S.O., V.D.	1923
Asst Commissioner J. W. Spalding, R.C.M.P.	1924
Colonel D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D.	1925
Lt.-Col. G. H. Whyte, M.C.	1926
Colonel D. G. L. Cunningham, M.C., V.D.	1927
Major H. W. McGill, M.C., V.D.	1928
Major A. N. Martin	1929
Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C.	1930
Lieut. Hugh Farthing, B.A.	1931
Lt.-Col. L. F. Page, D.S.O.	1932
Lt.-Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., A.D.C.	1933

LIFE MEMBERS

Major-Gen. A. H. Bell, C.M.G., D.S.O.
Lt.-Col. G. R. Pearkes, V.C., D.S.O., M.C.
Colonel G. E. Sanders, C.M.G., D.S.O.
Colonel D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D.
Colonel James Walker, V.D.

HONORARY MEMBERS

The Rt. Rev. L. Ralph Sherman, M.A., D.D.
Hon. Mr. Justice A. H. Clarke.
L. W. Brockington, Esq., K.C.

RESIDENT MEMBERS

A

Acton, J. U., Capt.
Adams, J. M., Capt.
Alexander, L. G., Lieut.
Annand, S. A., Lieut.
Adams, F. D., Lieut.

B

Babb, R., Capt., M.C.
Bagshaw, J. E., Lieut.
Baker, A. H., Capt.
Ballantine, A. C., Major
Barton, Percy, Capt.
Bavin, E. W., Insp.
Baxter, J. D., Capt.

Baxter, R. T., Lieut.
Bell, C. A., Major, M.C.
Begg, John, Capt.
Bell, W. A., Lieut.
Bennett, the Right Honorable R. B.
K.C., M.P., LL.D., Hon. Col.
Bentley, A., Lieut.
Berryman, A. M., Hon. Lt.-Col.
Bird, F. G., Major, M.C.
Birks, F. C., Lieut.
Bissett, J., Major, O.B.E.
Blow, H. F., Lieut.
Bouck, C., Capt.
Bowes, V. A., Lieut.
Bradley, S. F., Major
Broadley, W. E., Lieut.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

RESIDENT MEMBERS—Continued.

Bromley, C. H., Lt.-Com.
Brooks, W. M., Capt.
Brown, A. H., Capt.
Brown, J. E., Lieut.
Burns, Patrick, the Hon., Hon. Col.
Burns, T. E., Lieut.
Burns, T. M., Lieut.
Burton, J., Lieut.
Burr, F. G., Capt.
Burrell, G. E., Lieut.
Butler, F. J., Lieut.

C

Campbell, Colin H., Lieut.
Campbell, E. D., Capt.
Campbell, F. T., Major, M.C., V.D.
Campbell, Norman A., Capt.
Candy, Lionel E., Lieut.
Cape, Norman H., Lieut.
Carlile, R. C., Capt.
Carson, H. R., Lieut.
Cavanaugh, L. A., Lt.-Col.
Cave, J. H., Lieut.
Chapman, L. H., Capt.
Chestnut, M. V., Lieut.
Choate, C. A., Lieut.
Clark, C. Boville, Lieut.
Clarke, Maurice, Capt.
Clarke, F. C., Major, M.C.
Coates, W. R., Capt.
Cody, M. G., Capt.
Collinge, Thos. W., Lieut.
Cook, B. L., Lieut.
Corley, J. B., Capt.
Costigane, A. R., Major
Creech, H. E., Lieut., M.M.
Crichton, J. H., 2nd Lieut.
Cummings, G. J., Lieut.
Crumblehulme, F., Lieut.
Critchley, H. F., 2nd Lieut.
Cunnington, D. G. L., Col., M.C., V.D.

Currey, F. E., Capt.

D

Davies, S. J., Major, M.C.
Davis, A. J., Major.
Davison, G. R., Lieut.
Dawson, E., 2nd Lieut.
Dawson, H. R., Major.
Dingle, Norman D. Lt.-Col.
Dingman, A. R., Lieut.
Donald, T. P., 2nd Lieut.
Downie, Robt., Major, V.D.
Drever, A. P., Capt.
Drysdale, E. E., Capt.
Duff, James, Capt.

E

Earnshaw, P., Lt.-Col., D.S.O., M.C.

Edwards, E. W., Capt.
Edwards, W. H., Capt.
Egbert, W., Hon., Dr.
Ellissen, M. A., Capt., M.C.
Ellingson, D. M., Capt.
Emslie, W. J. F., Capt.
Ewens, G. M., 2nd Lieut.

F

Farquharson, S. R., Capt.
Farren, E., Lieut.
Farrow, N. A., Capt.
Farthing, Hugh, B.A., M.L.A., Lieut.
Ferguson, A. H., Capt.
Fetherstonhaugh, W. S., Lt.-Col. C.B.E.
Firmstone, W. E., Major.
Fish, F. H., Lieut.
Flood, L. R., Lieut.
Forbes, John, Lieut.
Forbes, Norman, Lieut.
Fortin, A. R., Capt.
Forrest, Ray, Capt.
Forrester, K. R., Lieut.
Fotheringham, D. T., Lieut.
Francis, H. W., Major.
Franks, H. G. S., Lieut., M.C.
Frickleton, W. C., Lieut.

G

Gaherty, G. A., Capt.
Goodchild, R. H., Lieut.
Grant, E. G., Lieut.
Gray, J. T., Lieut.
Gully, F. E., Lieut.
Gunn, J. N. Lt.-Col., D.S.O., V.D.
Guthrie, G. A., Lieut.

H

Hanna, J. J., Capt.
Hanning, J. E., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Harcourt, P. V., Major, D.C.M.
Harstone, J. B., Lt.-Col., D.S.O., O.B.E.
Harvey, A. F., Lieut.
Harvey, F. M., Major, V.C., M.C.
Harvie, E. L., Capt.
Haworth, D. C., Lieut.
Hawthorn, T. A., 2nd Lieut., M.M.
Herron, H. F., Lieut.
Hesson, J. E., Lieut.
Hieland, W. O., Capt.
Hinton, H. S., Capt.
Hogarth, James, Capt.
Howard, A. E., Lieut.
Hugill, John, Major, K.C.
Hulbert, E., Lieut.
Hutcheon, J. R., 2nd Lieut.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

RESIDENT MEMBERS—Continued.

I

Ingraham, G. F., Lieut.
Ireland, R. A., Lieut.
Irwin, Leslie H., Capt.

J

Jackson, R., Lieut.
James, E. W., Capt.
Jamieson, J. J., Capt.
Jardine, H. W., Capt.
Jennings, H. N., Lieut.
Jensen, E. L., Lieut.
Johnstone, A. C. C., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Johnston, G. E. H., Lieut.
Johnson, H. H., Major.
Johnson, G. R., Lt.-Col., V.D.
Johnston, F., Lieut., M.C.
Jones, Sidney, Lieut.
Jones, V. R., Major.
Jull, W. K., Major, M.C., V.D.

K

Keenan, M., Lieut.
Kennedy, H. G., Capt.
Kerby, G. W., Major.
Kerr, I. K., 2nd Lieut.
Knight, E. R., Lt.-Col., V.D.,
A.D.C.

L

Lake, Burt, Capt.
Landale, A., Lieut.
Landale, A. C., Major.
Lane, Leo. C., Capt.
Lane, W. L., Lieut.
Lawson, H. O., Lt.-Col.
Laybourne, T. W., Capt., D.C.M.
Learmonth G. E., Capt.
Leighton, G. E., Major, D.S.O.
Lethbridge, E. R., Major.
Littleton, J. W., Major, M.C.
Littlewood, P. P., Major, V.D.
Lipsett, L. R., Major, O.B.E.
Lockett, K. B., Capt.
Lockwood, G. E., 2nd Lieut.
Lougheed, E. D., Capt.

M

Mapson, F. W., Major.
Mason, E. G., Lt.-Col., O.B.E., V.D.
Matthews, H. H., Brig., C.M.G.,
D.S.O.
Manning, F. C., 2nd Lieut.
Maw, A., Major.
Maxwell, W., Capt., M.M.
Maybee A., Capt.
Millar, W. A. Capt.
Miller, J. K., Lieut.

Miller, L. St. J., Lieut.
Miller, L. W., Major, D.S.O.
Miller, S. L., Lieut.
Miller, W. St. J., Lieut.
Millican, G. W. H., Lt. Col., M.C.
Morris, S. C. W., Capt.
Morton, Guy H., Capt.
Morton, R. E. A., Capt.
Motherwell, W., Capt., V.D.
Murison, A. D., Capt.
Murray, J. A., Major.
Murray, T. F., Capt.
MacDonald, D. J., Lt.-Col., D.S.O.,
M.C.
MacDonald, J. A., Major.
Mackay, J. Grant, Lieut.
Mackid, L. S., Major.
Maclaren, A. H., Capt.
MacLauchlin, D. G., Lieut.
MacLean, J. A., Major, M.M.
MacLeod, J. E. A., Lieut., K.C.
McCaffery, J. F., Lieut.
McCall, F. R., Capt, D.S.O., M.C.,
D.F.C.
McCarthy L. G., Lieut.
McDonell, A. E. C., Major.
McDougall, D. J., Major.
McEwen, G. D. C., Capt.
McGuffin, W. H., Capt.
McIntosh, Wm., Major.
McKenney, F. C. V., Capt.
McLaughlan, D., Major.

N

Naismith, A. M., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Nash, Roy, Lieut.
Neal, Harry C., Lieut.
Neeland, J. H., Capt., M.M.
Nettleton, G. H., Capt.
Nelson, S. S., Lieut.
Noble, Wm, Capt.
Nolan, H. G, Capt., M.C.
Nyblett, R. L., 2nd Lieut.

O

O'Rourke, H. L., Lieut.
Orr, W. J, 2nd Lieut.

P

Page, C. E., Capt.
Page, L. F., Lt.-Col., D.S.O.
Park, A. W., Major.
Plummer, N. M., H.-Capt.
Pitman, J. D., Major, D.S.O.
Parks, J. H., Lt.-Col., D.S.O.,
O.B.E.
Patterson, W. H., Lieut.
Payne, P. J. R., Capt.
Peacock, M. B., Lt.-Col.

RESIDENT MEMBERS—Continued.

Pearson, S. G., Capt.
Pinder, Geo. Z., Capt., M.C.
Pook, G. Gidley, Capt.
Powell, F. C., Capt., M.C., D.C.M.
Price, Harold W., Lieut.
Price, R. W., Lieut.
Price, W. B., Major.
Pryde, Harry, Lt.-Col.
Pullar, J. G., Capt., M.C.
Purdy, Gordon S., Capt., M.M.

Q

Quint, W. S., Lt.-Col.

R

Randall, L. W. H., Capt.
Redman, D. L., Col., V.D.
Reed, H. K., Lieut.
Reid, J. A., Lt.-Col.
Richardson, D. A., Lieut.
Richardson, H., Lieut.
Rickard, E. E., Capt.
Riley, H. H., Major, M.M.
Ritchie, D., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Robbins, W. B., Lt.-Col.
Robinson, C. O., Lieut.
Robinson, G. S., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Robinson, M. H., Lieut.
Rogers, D. F., Capt.
Ross, D. A., Lieut.
Ross, J. H., Lieut.
Ross, W. H., Lieut., M.L.A.
Rowlands, J. H., Lieut.
Roy, R. M., Major.
Ryan, B. W., Lt.-Col., V.D.
Rushton, N. W., Lieut.

S

Sanson, R. D., Major.
Saunders, A. L. W., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Sawley, H., Capt.
Scott, A. W., Lieut.
Scott, H. G., Lieut., M.L.A., LL.B.
Scott, J. F., Major, LL.B.
Selby, E. R., Lt.-Col., D.S.O.
Shields, P. R., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Shillington, R. N. W., Major.
Shore, A. E., Major.
Sinclair, D. C., Capt.
Sinclair, D. S., Capt.
Skinner, T. A., Lieut.
Smith, B. S., Lieut.
Shouldice, F. L., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Smith, J. W., Capt.
Smith, W. N., Lieut.
Scuter, L. C. R., Lieut.
Sparrow, J. F., Major.
Spencer, O. Leigh, Major.
Stagg, J. W., Major, M.C., V.D.
Stanfield, R. E., Lieut.

Staples, M. H., Lieut.
Steel, F. M., Lt.-Col., D.S.O.
Stirton, D. M., Lieut.
Strachan, H., Major, V.C., M.C.
Strange, R. B., Capt.
Stuart, Duncan, Major.
Stunden, W. G., Capt.
Suttle, J. A., Capt.
Sutton, T. P., Capt., M.M.
Swanson, C., H-Capt., Ven. Arch-
deacon.
Stow, R. F., Lieut.

T

Taylor, John M., Lieut.
Taylor, W. P., Capt.
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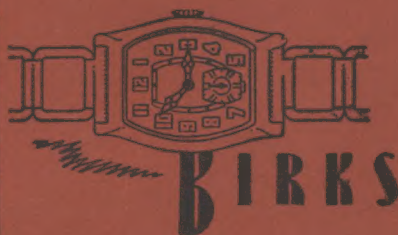


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